THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

INSIDE MENTOR:
A PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

by

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A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe the
development process involved in the Mentor Project,
an in-service program.

The researcher was a member of the development
committee and participant observation was the
methodology used.

Analysis of data was loosely based on Decker
Walker's "naturalistic model," which postulates
three stages to the development process. These
are platform, deliberation, and design.

The platform of the Mentor Project was drawn
from the Proposal submitted by the developers to
an ad hoc advisory committee. Implicit within the
Proposal was a view of teachers, children, evaluation,
in-service, resources, and social studies. These,
along with explicit statements concerning the shape
of the intended program, the results of surveys of
teacher needs, the recent research on in-service, and
certain practical restraints listed in the Proposal,
were used to paint a picture of the Mentor Program, as
the developers envisioned it.

Walker's four deliberative episodes, called issue,
explication, brainstorm, and report, were identified in
the transcripts obtained from tapes of the Mentor
development committee meetings. Four other episodes

were identified as well. These episodes were concerned more with preparation for deliberation, than with deliberation itself. They were called organization, presentation, update, and invention.

Another aspect of deliberation emerged. This aspect was categorized according to Berger's (1969) plausibility structures—legitimations, appeals to significant others, and nihilism. These plausibility structures were used in two ways by the developers. Legitimations and appeals to significant others were used to justify their decisions. Nihilism was used as a way to release tension and as a means of increasing group cohesiveness.

The design was analyzed in two steps. The first step involved a categorization of the major decisions according to whether they were implicit or explicit and a delineation of the circumstances or principles which were used to justify each decision. Circumstances were used far more than principles as a justification for decisions.

The second step involved an analysis of the design, using the same categories applied to the platform. It was found that much of what had been envisioned by the developers was lost during the development process.

Implications in two areas were drawn from the findings of this study. Implications for practice were outlined in the hope that others involved in the development of educational programs might benefit from the experience

of one such committee. Implications for research were
drawn as an encouragement to other researchers to add
to the available data concerning development processes,
in order that we may eventually make informed decisions
as to how we might best engage in program development
tasks.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

This study was an attempt to represent the
decision-making processes involved in the development
of an educational program.

The study arose from the need for description
of the ways in which educational programs are actually
developed to provide a balance to the texts which
purport to tell us how they should be developed. It
was an attempt to link the practical with the
theoretical.

The educational program upon which this study
focussed is called the Mentor Project. It is an
in-service program for teachers of grades one to twelve,
designed to assist in the implementation of the 1981
Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, through the promotion
of teacher competence in a number of specific teaching
strategies.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study arises from its
stated purpose of adding to the limited information
available in the area of the decision-making processes

of committees engaged in the task of developing educational
programs.

> the recovery and report of deliberations and
> of tactical judgments constitute a labor of
> great importance . . . . When such reports
> concern education, which is to say, when
> they concern the decisions and actions by
> which we determine preparations for the living
> of human lives, such a work is of special
> importance. (Schwab, 1975, p. viii)

Statement of the Problem

The following questions define the problem of
this study. The major question was:

How is an in-service program developed?

Within this question are the following subquestions:

a.   Upon what basis did the development committee
      begin its work?

b.   What were the components of the curriculum
      building process?

c.   How were decisions made during the
      development process?

d.   Were the products created by the development
      committee congruent with the basis from which
      they began their work?

Need for the Study

Need for Case Studies

William Blake once said, "To generalize is to be
an idiot. To particularize is the alone distinction of
merit" (1808, pp. xcii-xciii).

Most would not carry things to this extreme, but
educational researchers recognize the important
contribution which knowledge of the particular has to

make to the educational scene (Stake, 1978; Spradley, 1979).

Spindler and Spindler (1973), in their Foreward to Wolcott's ethnography of an elementary school principal, have this to say concerning the importance of that piece of work as a case study.

> It is not intended to be a study of a wholly typical elementary school because there is no such thing. It is a study centering on a school in a not atypical suburban district in a not atypical city of the Pacific Northwest. The reader who understands what Ed Bell, the principal in this school, does from hour to hour and day to day as he moves about the school and in the community will understand how the principal acts in thousands of elementary schools in the United States. But there are yet other thousands of such schools to which this case study will be necessarily tangential. This is as it must always be with case studies. Nevertheless, it is only through a case study in depth of this kind that the dynamics of the system and the interactions of people within it can be seen in their functional totality. (Spindler & Spindler, 1973, p. viii)

The case study, by its concern with analysis of the "idiosyncratic," (Stake, 1978, p. 7) develops intensive knowledge of the particular, which can then be recognized in new and different contexts. This involves the development of what Stake calls "naturalistic generalizations."

> Naturalistic generalizations develop within a person as a product of experience. They derive from the tacit knowledge of how things are, why they are, how people feel about them, and how these things are likely to be later or in other places with which this person is familiar. They seldom take the form of predictions but lead regularly to expectation. They guide action, in fact they are inseparable from action. (1978, p. 6)

Need for Naturalistic Studies of Program Development

> Process knowledge is as important as product
> knowledge, although the two are separate classes
> of information. People were able to tinker up
> flying machines, but knowledge of why they flew
> was necessary for the emergence of the science of
> aerodynamics and the development of the great
> flying machines of today. (Cooley & Lohnes,
> 1976, p. 171)

There has been increased attention of late to the need for process knowledge in the area of decision-making.

> Unless we understand what people are included
> in the process to provide information, what
> people give advice, what people are involved
> in discussions of a given decision, and the
> sequence of the interactions and activities
> leading up to the decision, our literature
> in the field of decision making will continue
> to be a mixture of fact and folklore. (Whyte,
> 1969, p. 702)

The curriculum literature, during the past fifteen years, has contained numerous calls for more descriptive studies of the way in which educational programs are developed--the interactions involved, the conflicts encountered, the influences on, the constraints, and the sources of information used, in the decision-making process.

Abramson (1966) referred to "the continuing paucity of studies which can serve as models for curriculum research" (p. 388).

Maguire noted that

> a great service can be done for the technologies
> of curriculum development and evaluation by those
> individuals who are intimately involved at the
> policy making level of curriculum development if

they would take the time to write down descriptions
of their activities, the kinds of decisions that
they make, the kinds of information upon which
they base their decisions, the kinds of conflicts
that arise within the initiator group and how
these conflicts are resolved, etc. (1969, p. 19)

Eisner, in 1971, referred to the ways in which

curricula are developed and implemented as "an unstudied

problem" (p. 6). He pointed out that with the exception

of four studies[1] "no attempt has been made . . . to

systematically study the way in which curricula are

actually made by curriculum development groups" (p. 6).

Yet he saw this task as "one of the primary boulders from

which the building blocks of the field of curriculum can

be cut" (p. 6).

In the decade following Eisner's comment, others

have echoed his thoughts.

Schwab, in a Foreward to Reid and Walker's Case

Studies in Curriculum Change, called for studies on the

deliberations involved in curriculum development projects.

He lamented the neglect of the areas of deliberation and

tactic in such projects. The problem as he saw it,

stemmed from the

virtual absence of record and the impossibility of
a verifying repetition. In theoretical works,
whether esthetic, ethical or scientific, the
argument is presented for all to read. The
experiment can be repeated. But deliberative
and tactical work take place by word of mouth
behind closed doors (even behind the closed door
of a single mind) and they deal with the unique
event. (1975, p. viii)

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[1]Eisner was referring to McClure (1965); Walker (1969);
Hurd (1961); and Wooten (1965).

Silverblank has pointed out that "the study of
the communication process as it occurs in curriculum
projects would yield useful knowledge about the processes
by which people influence each other--decision-making
and non-decision-making--which, in essence is the heart
of the matter in any curriculum project" (1979, p. 417).

Reid has said that "until recently, astonishingly
little effort has been directed towards discovering how
curriculum problems are tackled" (1978, p. 32). He has
called for "more studies . . . that take actual working
groups and look at them in terms of unique features of
the curriculum tasks they have to carry out" (1979, p. 207).

Walker (1973) has pointed out that between 1971 and
1973 the Review of Educational Research contained only one
article reviewing research in curriculum. He has suggested
a number of reasons for the lack of research in this area.

"We have believed that we must study only overt
behaviour" (p. 64). According to Walker, we have avoided
introspective accounts, believing that nothing but behaviour
is observable. This belief has been based on a misconception
that observations can be made which are not influenced by
expectations and preconceptions.

"We have believed that research must be entirely a
matter of verification and proof" (p. 65). He explained
that, in order to test something, there must first be
something to test. This 'something' can only be obtained
from a "substructure of ideas and concepts" (p. 66) which

the field of curriculum lacks. In order to develop this substructure we need to conduct research in a context of discovery and verification rather than prematurely jumping to a context of verification and proof.

"We have believed that human judgments are unreliable, and therefore not fit objects for empirical research" (p. 66). When studying curriculum development, we observe people making judgments about the value of certain topics or activities or objectives. By studying these judgments as valuable data, we throw additional light on the development process. Walker says,

> To think that we can study curriculum planning
> without reference to such judgments is like
> believing that it is possible to study piano
> playing without reference to any "arbitrary"
> human standards of performance. What it means
> to play a piano well is in large part a matter
> of human preference. To think of these
> preferences as inadequate, judgmental indicators
> of some more objective criterion is a mistake.
> (p. 66)

"We have believed that empirical research (at its best) means searching for isolated causes or cause-effect relations" (p. 67). Curriculum research is not necessarily amenable to isolation of particular cause-effect relationships. One isolated event does not cause another isolated event. Rather, they are both part of a complex number of inter-related events. It is more appropriate to speak of "consequences, determinants, and influences rather than effects and results" (p. 68).

"We have believed that we must control our phenomena in order to study them scientifically" (p. 68). Walker makes the point here that a prerequisite to studying phenomena under controlled conditions is knowledge about the terms on which the phenomenon will admit of being studied. Since we do not yet possess this background knowledge in relation to curricular phenomena, we need to use relatively uncontrolled approaches to studying them.

"We have believed that we must study one small thing at a time" (p. 69). If educational policies and practices are to be based on research rather than intuitition, we need to develop a tradition of integrative research which will not stand in isolation, but rather, will complement the work done in other disciplines.

There have been numerous calls for descriptive studies of the decision-making processes of development committees. This study will look closely at the processes involved in the development of an educational program by one such committee.

Theoretical Framework

As an alternative to the prescriptive Tylerian model of curriculum development, Walker has outlined a "naturalistic model" (1971), based on participant observation of the Kettering Project and written reports or tapes of several other projects, including the School Mathematics Study Group, discussed previously. He has proposed this model as a possible conceptual

framework for describing other curriculum development projects (1969; 1970; 1971; 1971; 1975).

This "naturalistic" model grew out of his observations of how curriculum development actually occurs. It is a descriptive rather than a prescriptive model. The primary difference between this model and the classical one is in the roles assigned to objectives and evaluation.

> This model is basically a temporal one: it postulates a beginning (the platform), an end (the design), and a process (deliberation) by means of which the beginning progresses to the end. In contrast, the classical model is a means-end model: it postulates a desired end (the objective), a means for attaining this end (the learning experience), and a process (evaluation) for determining whether the means does indeed bring about the end. (1971, pp. 58-59)

The platform is the set of relevant beliefs and values which the developers hold and which influence the process of building the program.

> A curriculum developer uses his platform to construct a curriculum in much the same way an anthropologist uses his beliefs and assumptions about human anatomy, past and present, to construct a skull from a few pieces of bone. Neither can work without a platform, for his platform tells him what to look for and what to expect as his final product. (1970, p. 3)

Deliberation is the second phase of the development process. It is the process of considering alternatives and coming to decisions.

"The animating principle in curriculum deliberation is the desire for defensibility, for justifiability of decisions" (1971, pp. 54-55). Frequently, decisions can be

justified on the basis of the project's platform, the assumptions which are already accepted.

However, there are times when appeal to the platform is inadequate because all the alternatives under consideration are consistent with the platform, because none are, or because there is not enough information at hand to determine whether or not they are consistent with the platform. The developers will then seek out data, any information which can provide empirical confirmation of the platform.

The design "like an automobile's design, is the set of abstract relationships embodied in the designed object" (1971, p. 53). Walker suggests that the design be presented schematically, by means of the series of decisions that produced it.

> A curriculum's design would then be represented by the choices that enter into its creation. Just as an experienced architect could construct a model of a building from a complete record of the decisions made by the building's designer as well as from a set of blueprints, so a curriculum developer could substantially reconstruct a project's curriculum plan and materials from a record of the choices they made. (1971, p. 53)

The "naturalistic model" would seem to provide a viable schema for analysis of the Mentor project for these reasons:

1. The Mentor project involved the development, by a committee, of an educational program, a "curriculum" for teachers as students, in the sense in which Walker speaks of a "curriculum" for children as students.

2.   It is a process model, which accommodates changes
that occur over time.

However, there were certain social aspects of the
dynamics of the development process in Mentor which
did not seem to be contained within this model. For
this reason, an additional means of analysis has been
added to the deliberation section of the schema.

Berger's "plausibility structures" have been applied
to these aspects of the verbal discourse. Berger (1969)
points out that "one of the fundamental propositions of
the sociology of knowledge is that the plausibility, in the
sense of what people actually find credible, of views
of reality depends upon the social support these receive"
(pp. 42-43).

Werner (1977) has outlined these plausibility
structures in detail. Three of these were applied to the
Mentor discourse. Legitimizations (called "legitimations"
by Berger) are "explanations, justifications, and theories
in support of the conceptions in question" (Berger,
1969, p. 43). Nihilism involves methods whereby
"alternative reality interpretations are given a negative
status" (Werner, 1977, p. 115). Appeals to significant
others refers to the use of experts "to lend support and
authority to the position taken by program developers"
(Werner, 1977, p. 106).

These plausibility structures accounted for aspects of the discourse which were not strictly deliberation and yet were a definite part of the processes involved in the development of Mentor.

Methodology

Given the types of data necessary to a study of the decision-making processes of a development committee, and the researcher's position as a member of such a committee, participant observation was considered to be the most appropriate choice of methodology.

According to Henderson (1978), the term "participant observation" was first coined by Lindeman (1924). In the sense in which Lindeman used the term, "participant observers" were people who reported on a group to which they already belonged. McCall and Simmons (1969) point out that the term is still sometimes reserved "for the techniques in which the scientist virtually performs the role of a genuine member and counts as very critical data his resulting subjective experiences, which provide leads to be pursued by interviewing his fellow participants" (p. 1).

However, a participant observer is commonly considered to be a person who joins a group in order to observe it and who does not necessarily perform the role of a genuine member (Henderson, 1978; McCall & Simmons, 1969).

"Participant observation" is employed in this study in the original sense of the word. The researcher was already a group member when the study began and continued to perform all of the functions of a group member while the study was being carried out.

Participant observation is an approach uniquely suitable to the study of process, of change over time. According to Smith (1975), a

> key advantage of field research is . . . its ability to shed light on processes or dynamics of social situations. That is, field research data can be gathered over long periods of time for many variables. Other methods rarely approach this adaptability to the study of social dynamics. For instance, structured observations may be gathered over long time periods but usually for only one or a few variables. Surveys, on the other hand, can be used to collect data on a large number of variables but are generally impractical for reuse on the same populations more than a few times. (p. 230)

As Shipman said, in describing his study of a curriculum project, "it was not a single photograph, but a jigsaw built up over time. Each piece could be fitted into the total picture" (1974, p. 181).

A second advantage of participant observation is that it affords the opportunity for first-hand observation of people in their natural settings. The researcher has the opportunity to observe people as they really are, and not as they represent themselves on a questionnaire, in an interview, or during a laboratory situation.

Whyte discusses this point.

> If you are going to be interviewed for the
> newspaper, you put on your good suit and your
> best tie, make sure that the kitchen dishes are
> cleaned up, and in general take all the steps
> you associate with making a public appearance.
> You appear before the public in the role that
> you would like to play before the public.
> You cannot do this with a social researcher
> who comes in and lives with you.   (1955, p. 349)

A third advantage is that various data gathering

methods can be used as they are deemed to be appropriate.

As Williamson et al. point out

> unobtrusive measurement, life history studies,
> documentary and historical analysis, statistical
> enumeration, indepth interviewing, imaginative
> role-taking, and personal introspection are all
> important complements of direct observation in the
> field worker's repertoire (1977, p. 200).

Participant observation, then, is particularly

appropriate to a study of the development of an educational

program because of the unique opportunity which it affords

to observe the dynamics of group processes over time

and in situ, and the adaptability of its methods to the

changing requirements of the research.

Definitions

In this study the terms "curriculum" and "program"

are used interchangeably. They are defined as a plan for

the education of learners.

Curriculum development refers to procedures for

constructing a curriculum.

A development committee is a group working together

to construct a curriculum.

In-service is any activity that "contributes to a sharing of ideas among teachers, an improvement in the professional or personal knowledge and skills of a teacher, or the installation of an innovation in a school's program" (Young, 1979, p. 1).

Limitations

1.   There was no attempt to represent the perspectives of the various stakeholders in the project.

Being a member of the Mentor development committee has proved to be a most valuable learning experience for this writer. One of the most important learnings was that people do, indeed, bring varying perspectives to a project. This is certainly described in the literature.[2] However, it was only through the experience of being a developer of Mentor that this truth became apparent to the writer.

This thesis has been written from one perspective, that of a developer. No attempt has been made to look through the spectacles of other participants in the process. A most fascinating thesis could have been written by someone who had acted as an observer and interviewer of all the parties involved, in the spirit of Shipman (1974) who observed and interviewed members of the project team,

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[2]Some who make this point are Shaw, K. E. Negotiating curriculum change in a college of education. In W. A. Reid & D. F. Walker (Eds.), Case studies in curriculum change: Great Britain and the United States. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1975; Shipman, M. D. Inside a curriculum project: A case study in the process of curriculum change. London: Methuen & Co., 1974; and Wooten, W. SMSG: The making of a curriculum. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1965.

teachers, local authority advisers, and the Schools
Council, in his sociological study of the establishment
and implementation of a curriculum project.

At the time the proposal for this research was
written (March, 1980), this writer was not even aware
(in an internalized sense) that there were radically
different perspectives on the project. Later, when this
came to light some consideration was given to changing
direction and exploring this area. This idea was
rejected for two reasons.

First, it was decided that it would be too difficult
to put down the "conceptual baggage" which had been picked
up, and would continue to be picked up, from the
experience of being a developer (unless, of course, the
role of developer was dropped).

Second, this change of focus would have meant
ignoring a singular opportunity to explore the development
process from the perspective of an "insider," as a member
of a development team. It was decided that this was too
unique an opportunity to miss.

Other participants in the process, i.e., individuals
from Alberta Education, ACCESS, the ad hoc advisory
committee, and pilot teachers may wish to take issue with
statements made here. This writer can only emphasize
and reiterate that this is the way it was to a developer.
2. This is not an evaluation of the effectiveness of the
Mentor Project as a vehicle for in-servicing teachers in

social studies. That is material for another thesis.

Organization of the Thesis

The first chapter of this thesis has had several
intents. The problem has been stated. The need for the
study and, hence, its significance, were demonstrated by
means of a discussion of the dearth of information
available concerning the decision-making processes of
committees engaged in the task of developing educational
programs. The numerous calls in the literature for
research work of this kind have been pointed out. Finally,
the theoretical framework was briefly described and
a rationale for the use of participant observation as a
means of carrying out this type of study was provided.

Chapter II involves an examination of pertinent
literature and research in four areas: program development,
in-service education, implementation practices for social
studies curricula in Alberta during the period from 1971 to
1981, and opportunistic research. The research on program
development is an attempt to review studies carried out
to date and to show what we now know about the development
of educational programs. The research on in-service
education has been examined with the purpose of providing
a context for the Mentor program within the state-of-the-art
findings regarding what seems to make an effective
in-service program. The review of implementation practices
for social studies curricula in the province of Alberta

from 1971-1981 has been included to provide a broader
picture of where Mentor fits within the context of social
studies education in Alberta at the present time. The
review of opportunistic research provides a rationale
for the use of such an approach in this study.

Chapter III describes the methodology used in this
study, against a background of other participant observation
research.

Chapter IV involves a description and analysis of
the development process involved in the Mentor Program,
through application of a modified form of Decker Walker's
naturalistic model of curriculum development to the Mentor
data.

In the final chapter, the study is summarized,
conclusions are reached, and implications for practice
and for future research are drawn.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

Introduction

This review is divided into four sections.
The first section is a review of current research
related to program development. The intent of the
review is to place this study against a background
of previous research in this area. Two major
conclusions regarding program development are drawn
from the studies reviewed.

The second section is concerned with a review
of current research findings related to effective
in-service practice. There has been a great deal of
research in this area since the mid 1970's. The Mentor
developers, as members of a university education
faculty, would be expected to be cognizant of this
research. It is also stated in their Proposal that
"the implications of recent research on in-service
efforts" (p. 2) were taken into consideration in
determining the shape of the proposed program.
Therefore the major research findings will be
considered to be part of the Mentor platform.

The third section is a review of implementation

practices in relation to social studies curricula
in Alberta during the period from 1971 to 1981.
Specifically, the discussion concerns itself with
implementation practices connected with the 1971,
1978, and 1981 social studies curricula and events
surrounding these implementation practices. The
Mentor Program, when first conceived, was intended to
serve as an implementation tool for the 1978 interim
social studies curriculum. However, since this
curriculum was not in place as long as was expected,
it will become a means of assisting in the implementation
of the 1981 social studies curriculum instead. This
review, then, serves to place Mentor in the context
of implementation practices for Alberta social studies
curricula in the 1970's and early 1980's.

Section four reviews opportunistic research
studies and discusses some of their advantages. It
is intended to provide a rationale for the use of
such an approach in this study.

Studies of Program Development

Vickers (1965) looked at decision-making
at the national level and defined five, not
necessarily sequential stages. These were appreciation
- how the problem is to be defined; reality

judgment - what the relevant facts are; value
judgment - what solutions would be acceptable,
generation of alternatives - what might be done;
and proposals - what should be done.

Appreciation involves a clear conception of
the problem. According to Vickers, if we too
readily assume that we know what the problem is, we
may attempt to find answers for the wrong problem,
wasting time and resources. The problem emerges
over time. It can only do so through the
participation of a variety of people having a range
of expertise and viewpoints.

Reality judgments involve a decision concerning
which, of all the available information, is
pertinent. It is complicated by the fact that some
information may be in dispute.

Value judgments are concerned with the benefits or
disadvantages of possible actions. Based on these
value judgments, alternative plans of action are
generated, from which one plan is chosen.

Schwab (1973) applied practical reasoning to the
process of deliberation in small groups. He, like Vickers,
argues that groups, not individuals, must undertake

curriculum decision-making because of the types of
expertise and experience that are essential components
of the process. The five sources of expertise which
he suggests are: discipline(s), learners, milieus,
teachers, and curriculum making. The group should
consist of ten or twelve people, according to Schwab,
so that the sources of expertise can all be well rep-
resented without creating a group so big that it becomes
too formal.

Wooten (1965) was one of the first to provide a
case-history of a curriculum development project. He
described the activities and modus operandi of SMSG
(School Mathematics Study Group) over a four-year
period in which it developed mathematics textbooks for
use in Grades 7-12.

SMSG was one of the many curriculum projects which
emerged during the heyday of federal funding for curriculum
development in the U.S., extending from the mid-fifties
to the late sixties (Post-Sputnik era).

Wooten gives an account of the creation of the SMSG,
its overall organization, and the physical setting where
its work was carried out. He describes the procedures
employed by the writing teams, the accomplishments of each
team by the end of each summer writing session, and the
behind-the-scenes organizational practices; i.e., hiring of
typists, setting up accommodation, trying to meet unexpectedly
high demands for sample texts, etc.

What Wooten does not provide is an analysis of interactions between individuals, decisions that were made, etc.

However, it is evident that the SMSG writing groups were not always in complete agreement on how to carry out their objectives, or on the objectives themselves. Agreement had to be reached through discussion and negotiation.

> Although a considerable overlap of these viewpoints exists among the members of such a group, there are many areas of disagreement . . . . these areas had to be clearly delineated before any serious attempt at writing could begin. (Wooten, 1965, p. 25)

Wooten does not make clear what, if any, connection he himself, had to the project. However, he apparently was not present during the curriculum development process. Hence, observation is not mentioned as a means of gathering data. Data was obtained by means of document analysis and interviewing, or obtaining written descriptions, from key informants, namely, individuals in charge of subgroups.

Not having transcripts of tapes of meetings of writing teams, he could not provide reports concerning deliberations and tactical judgments "to provide us with ground for testing our views of what constitutes better and worse in these critically important arts" (Schwab, 1975, p. viii). Instead he has provided a narrative, surface level account of the development process. He describes his purpose as follows:

> This book is addressed to any person, mathematically trained or otherwise, with a curiosity about how a group such as SMSG undertakes to influence the curriculum of the schools of the United States. (1967, p. vi)

Wooten, then, viewed his case-study of a particular curriculum project as a means of helping the reader to draw inferences about other projects. This particular project was representative of many others. Characteristics common to such federally funded projects were collaboration of teachers and subject-matter specialists; the major goal of modification of the existing school curriculum in the subject area of concern; and the production of textbooks or other materials for classroom use.[3]

More recently, some studies have been done which have attempted to meet Schwab's (1975) call for research into deliberation and tactic in curriculum development projects.

Retrospective analysis, defined as "an analysis of some portion of a curriculum development project by a member of the project after the project has ended" (Wise and Peshkin, 1977, p. 172), is one approach to looking at curriculum deliberations. Wise, Singer, Altschuld, and Berk presented papers at a symposium of the 1977 annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association in support of this approach.

Wise and Berk presented discussion papers on the use of this approach; while Singer and Altschuld's presentations actually used the technique to describe a curriculum

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[3]For reports of similar projects, see Ridgeway (1969) and Hurd (1961).

development project in which they were involved as director
and assistant director. Singer, in "A Retrospective
Analysis of the Development of Program Criteria," describes
the major phases of deliberation, issues that arose during
the deliberations, and the tactics used during the course
of developing a set of product criteria to serve as guide-
lines for materials development. Altschuld, in "A Retro-
spective Analysis of the Development of a Project Monitoring
System," describes the deliberations involved in the design
of a procedure for quality-control of the materials
developed. He also deals with the issues that arose and
the effects of the quality-control procedures on subsequent
project deliberation.

Shaw (1975) described the process of curriculum
development, at the policy-making level, in an English
college of teacher education. He used interviewing and
attendance at meetings over a three year period to observe
how decisions were made with regard to a major curriculum
innovation (the change from a secondary school to a primary
school teacher education orientation).

Shaw emphasized that negotiation is the basis of
curriculum decision-making. Hence, managerial tasks
should focus on facilitating and guiding the negotiation
process, in order that it can become more effective.

Individuals and interests groups did not readily
commit themselves to major policy statements. This is

because objectives and preferences were never immediately
known. They emerged over time, as information was
received and processed. Often, this information was obtained
by means of digressive and not obviously decision-oriented
discussion.

This mode of decision-making is due, not to a lack of
sophistication or knowledge on the part of participants, but
to the inherent nature of the curriculum decision-making
situation. Within the group is a system of human relationships
which must, in the process of decision-making on desired
ends and available means, make adjustments both within
itself and with the wider social and political environment.
At the same time, consensus must be preserved and the
decision-making machinery maintained.

Ledgerwood (1975) conceptualized, on the basis of the
theoretical literature and an empirical case study of a
curriculum committee, three ideal styles of curriculum
decision-making - hierarchical, mutualistic, and autonomous.

In so doing, he drew attention to the fact that
curriculum decision-making can be viewed from alternative
perspectives. His purpose was also to provide decision-
makers with the tools to consider the choices available to
them before beginning a project and to analyze their
decision-making during and following the project.

Walker (1969; 1970; 1971; 1971; 1971; 1975) has outlined a
"naturalistic model" based on the written reports of
projects such as the School Mathematics Study Group,

participant observation of an art education project at
Stanford, and tape recordings of this project and two
science curriculum projects.

Walker has made several major contributions to our
knowledge concerning curriculum development.

His naturalistic model provides a schematic method
of organizing a record of the life of a curriculum
development project. He has postulated three stages.
These are Platform, Deliberation, and Design.

Secondly, he has shown that meaningful patterns can
be determined from complex and apparently chaotic discourse.
He was one of the first to devise a system for analyzing the
deliberations of curriculum development committees. He used
independent judges to break the transcripts into what he
called "deliberative episodes," which were macroscopic
units of analysis. A microscopic level of analysis was
then used to break several of the episodes down into smaller
units.

Thirdly, he has shown that curriculum development
projects do not necessarily begin with a statement of
objectives. Rather, the objectives emerge from deliberation.
As a result of his work he has stated that "I think it
most important to try to explode the widely believed myth
that all curriculum development should begin with objectives
and work in a formal and systematic way toward the creation
and evaluation of plans and materials" (1975, p. 133).

In his book, <u>Inside a Curriculum Project</u> (1974), and
in various articles, M. D. Shipman has provided a
fascinating account of the findings of his research into
the Schools Council Integrated Studies Project, organized
from the University of Keele between 1968 and 1971. Shipman
investigated both the development of the project and its
implementation in trial schools. He viewed his work as
an attempt to "link the anecdotal accounts of those who
have to solve practical problems of innovation with the
specualations of curriculum theorists" (1972, p. 145). He,
too, failed to find evidence of setting out of clear
objectives at the outset of the project, but rather, "the
progressive emergence of a definition" (p. 147).

> Curriculum development does not proceed through
> a clear cycle from a statement of objectives
> to an evaluation of the learning strategies
> used. It consists of interaction, accommodation
> and compromise. Horse trading and horse sense
> are the concrete curriculum scene, not the
> clinical alignment of means with ends that is the
> official version. (1972, p. 147)[4]

Another major conclusion of Shipman's study was that
there are contrasting definitions of a curriculum project,
each of which is a reflection of a legitimate position.
This position emerged from the context in which each party
worked. For instance, teachers defined the project
differently than did the project team. The team saw the
project as a "co-operative exercise in exploring the
problems and possibilities of integration in the Humanities.

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[4] For an official version of this project, see Caston (1971).

It was to be an invitation to schools to join in an experiment, not to try out a new syllabus" (p. 148).

However, the teachers' perspective was "of a project to be used to develop tailor-made courses for their school rather than of a trial of new content and methods for possible diffusion elsewhere" (p. 148). Similarly, other parties defined the project according to the context in which they worked.

Shipman concludes that "the curriculum scene is a busy market place where bargains are struck between parties who interpret the contract through their particular circumstances" (1972, p. 152).

Little work has been done as far as examining the decision-making processes involved when classroom teachers develop curricula. However, the limited findings available demonstrate that teachers, too, begin in ways other than by stating objectives. Eisner (1967) shows that teachers often identify, at the outset, defensible activities and go on to determine the possible consequences for the students of engaging in those activities.

Taylor (1970) has shown that teachers' perceptions of the process of planning are dominated by the exigencies of the teaching situation, such as the need to have materials and resources and subject matter, to take into account students' attitudes and interests, one's general aims as a teacher, and to have a justification for them, and to have a range of criteria for judging the effectiveness of the

various interrelated activities in which one engages.

Conclusion

Descriptive studies of the processes involved in program development fit within a rationale of attempting to solve practical dilemmas confronting educational practitioners. Two major themes have emerged from the few studies that have been carried out thus far.

The first finding is that deliberations do not proceed in an orderly progression from formulation of objectives to achieving of ends, as stipulated by such theorists as Tyler (1949) and Taba (1962).

Briefly stated, the Tyler rationale requires planners to: (a) state objectives; (b) select experiences; (c) organize experiences and content; and (d) evaluate in terms of the extent to which objectives have been attained.

Walker (1975) has described the decision-making processes of one program development committee as being "like an amoeba which lurched forward by extending the very stuff of its life--its deliberations--in localized forays into the territory ahead" (p. 111). This is not the linear ends-means progression outlined by the Tyler model.

Many (Walker, 1975; Reid, 1975; Wise, 1976), in recent years, have argued against the idea that the stating of objectives is the best way to begin planning.

Walker has said

Adherence to this ideal has already led to some
bizarre excesses in the US. I have in mind

> the Kafkaesque image of thousands of teachers
> in schools and colleges throughout the country
> at this very moment writing behavioral objectives
> or selecting them for purchase (that's right,
> they are for sale) in response to demands from
> officials operating under the assumption that the
> use of behavioural objectives is absolutely the
> only way to secure program evaluation. (1975, p. 133)

The second finding concerns the way in which decisions

are reached. Again, this is anything but a clearcut,

orderly process. Negotiation seems to be the means by

which consensus is achieved among the various parties

involved.

Reid and Walker (1975) have described the process of

curriculum development as a

> quaisi-political process which allows policy
> to be 'discovered' through negotiation,
> objectives to arise when choice points are
> reached, and accommodations to be found which
> enable competing belief systems to achieve a
> modus vivendi. (Reid & Walker, 1975, p. 54)

In-Service: Findings of the Research

Introduction

This section will review the current research findings related to effective in-service practice. From this review of the literature, ten tenets of effective in-service practice have been drawn.

Since it is stated in the developers' Proposal that "the implications of recent research on in-service efforts" (p. 2) were taken into consideration in determining the shape of the proposed program, the ideas expressed in these tenets have been included as part of the developers' platform, described and analyzed in Chapter IV.

In-service has been referred to as "the slum of American education. It is disadvantaged, poverty-stricken, neglected, and has little effect" (Wood & Thompson, 1980, p. 374).

Closer to home, the Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies, has referred to it as "an issue . . . that most people have long since given up on" (Personal correspondence, Feb. 25, 1981).

Hentschel (1977) points out that "today's inservice activities are not markedly changed from

activities conducted in the early 1900s" (p. 103).

Forty-four teachers surveyed by Brimm and Tollett (1974) agreed with the statements that, "Most inservice programs are virtually useless" (p. 524).

Articles on the subject of in-service have such titles as "Don't Give Up On Inservice Harry," "Inservice Education: Its Murky Past and Uncertain Future," "In-Service Education: Cornerstone of Curriculum Development - or Stumbling Block?" or "Inservice: Bandwagon or Hearse?"

Jarolimek has said:

One might assume . . . that something perceived to be as important as in-service education of teachers would be very well done. If we are to believe reports of hundreds of teachers, however, along with the results of some research, we would have to conclude that in-service programs are very frequently not well done, and for the most part are ineffective in changing teacher behavior over any length of time. (1970, p. 329)

Research in the area of in-service education is very limited. Many of the "findings" are really only hypotheses or "hunches," based on experience, rather than conclusions based on research (Joyce and Showers, 1980; Hentschel, 1977).

Fullan and Pomfret (1977), in their extensive review of the research relating to curriculum and instruction implementation, found only seven studies where in-service training was directly involved as a factor.

In a review of the research relating to in-service, carried out for the Conference on Inservice, sponsored by the Department of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, the 1980-81 Masters Degree candidates summed up their findings in the following way:

> Of the seven hundred articles on inservice education which we reviewed, fewer than 10% report research findings. Of the 55 to 60 research based articles, only 23 dealt with inservice programs for Public School Teachers. The other 35 or so dealt with college/university teaching or with administrative skills. (1980, p.4)

It is evident that in-service is an area in education that educators would prefer to forget. Results are disappointing and teachers often view it as a waste of time. They do not see it as meeting their needs.

Planning In-Service Programs

Determining Teachers' Needs

A number of studies have been concerned with determining the importance which teachers place on

needs-assessment procedures being used as the first
step to in-service program planning, and secondly,
with the degree of success of programs where this has
been the first step.

These studies point to two things. The first is
the high value which teachers place on having their
expressed needs shape the in-service programs in which
they participate. The second is that teachers tend
to perceive those programs which have been planned with
their expressed needs in mind as having been successful.

Zigarmi, Betz and Jensen (1977) administered
a questionnaire survey to 1,239 teachers. They found
that teachers want in-service program planning to be
based on their expressed needs. Furthermore, teachers
report higher satisfaction with in-service programs
that have been planned with their needs in mind, than
with those that have not.

Brimm and Tollett (1974) used a "teachers
Attitude Towards In-Service Education Inventory" in a
survey of teachers from each of the 147 school districts
in Tennessee. Using a Likert-type scale, teachers
responded to a series of 34 statements regarding
in-service education programs. Eighty-nine percent
either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement,

"The teacher should have the opportunity to select
the kind of in-service activities which he feels will
strengthen his professional competence" (p. 523).
Seventy-three percent said that too often in-service
activities do not appear relevant to any felt needs
of the teacher.

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
(NCTM) in the United States, surveyed 7,500 elementary
and secondary teachers in 1975, as to their perceptions
regarding the usefulness of in-service education.
Many of the results of this study have been reported
and discussed in An In-Service Handbook for Mathematics
Education (Osborne, 1977). A 150-item questionnaire
was sent to each teacher, most of whom indicated that
they had had experience within the previous two
years upon which to base their responses. Elementary
teachers who helped identify in-service topics were
significantly more likely to have realized satisfaction
and have had a positive in-service experience than
those who had not. Secondary teachers who had participated
in topic selection were about twice as likely to have
had a positive in-service experience than were those
who had not.

On the basis of a review of five studies which
surveyed and analyzed a variety of in-service practices
and programs, Wilen and Kindsvatter (1978) also came

to the conclusion that "the needs of teachers must directly influence the nature and design of in-service education programs" (p. 394).

There is some question regarding the validity of surveys of teachers' needs, in that in-service needs, as reported by teachers, and their needs, as seen by others, may not be the same.

Jones and Hayes (1980) administered an _Inventory_ for the purpose of measuring knowledge and perception of needs in a number of aspects of reading instruction, including reading readiness, word perception, and diagnosis. They found that, while the average percentage of items correct on the _Inventory_ was 61, teachers did not perceive greater knowledge in these areas to be a need.

Jones and Hayes suggest that "determining needs and securing statements from teachers about concerns or current problems are two distinctly different tasks" (p. 392). Observation, forma testing, and interviewing as well as questionnaires should be used to assess teachers' needs. They advise that questions be asked in a way that identifies symptoms rather than development activities. For instance, a question might be asked concerning the difficulties of teaching students with different abilities or interests rather than one concerning the needs for a workshop on learning centres.

They conclude:

Our research suggests that teachers can express symptoms of needs but may not be aware of their actual needs. The needs they report must be analyzed by objective means to determine the

underlying conditions that resulted in expression
of the symptoms. (1980, p. 392)

Discussion

The assumption seems to be commonly made, by in-service
leaders, that they know what the teachers' problems are.
As a result, they confidently go about the business of
designing a program to solve these problems.

The implication for planning in-service programs
of the studies mentioned here, is that this assumption
should not be made. Rather, the first step in planning
would be to systematically determine what it is, if
anything, that teachers may wish to gain, from an
in-service program.

As for the argument that teachers do not always
identify their "real" needs,

> the initial activities should respond to the
> need or want as expressed so that the energy of
> the teacher will not be dampened, and the
> enthusiasm of the teacher will not be dulled.
> As the inservice education response proceeds,
> other needs may be defined, and other plans can
> be made to meet them. (Young, 1979, p. 5)

Teacher Involvement in Planning

Wilen and Kindsvatter (1978) found that "teachers
need to be directly involved in planning the goals, content,
and instructional approach of in-service education programs"
(p. 394). Not only should they be involved, according
to Wilen and Kindsvatter, but they should assume the
major responsibility since the in-service is being conducted
for them.

One of the characteristics which Zigarmi, Betz,
and Jensen (1977) found to be common to types of
in-service which teachers consider to be most useful, was

that teachers are "involved in planning and feel that
they have some control over their own inservice
experiences" (p. 551).

Ninety-three percent of the teachers surveyed
by Brimm and Tollett (1974) "stated that teachers need
to be involved in the development of purposes, activities,
and methods of evaluation for in-service programs"
(p. 524).

From interviews with more than one thousand
educators, Joyce et al. (1976) found that respondents
considered it the responsibility of teachers, or
teachers in cooperation with other groups, to determine
the content of in-service programs.

Lawrence (1974), in a summary of ninety-seven
studies or evaluation reports of in-service education,
concluded that "the inservice programs that have the
best chance of being effective are those that involve
teachers in planning and managing their own professional
development activities" (p. 114).

Ninety-three percent of the elementary and 92%
of the secondary teachers in the NCTM survey (1977)
indicated a preference for participation in identifying
the topics dealt with at in-service sessions.

Young (1979) sets out four phases of planned
change -- need identification, solution or program
selection, solution implementation, and evaluation.

He points out that whatever "solutions" an in-service program is attempting to present, it will be owned by the teacher only if the teacher has shared in the definition of the need in the first place, and the choice and adaptation of the solution.

Discussion

Teacher involvement in planning the in-service program in which they will participate seems to be of paramount importance. This is likely related, at least in part, to the fact that sharing in planning results in the building up of commitment. If one has a stake in the success of the program one is more likely to participate with enthusiasm and look back upon the in-service experience as having been successful.

Implementing In-Service Programs

Teachers Helping Teachers

Millikan (1979) found, in a study of a sample of secondary school teachers in Edmonton, that these teachers relied almost entirely on other teachers for assistance. They called on supervisors or consultants only rarely.

Zigarmi, Betz, and Jensen's (1977) results show that, with the exception of workshops carried out on college/university campuses, teachers consistently ranked in-service experiences conducted by outside consultants as less useful than experiences involving

working with other teachers.

In the NCTM survey (1977), teachers indicated a preference for working with a person in one's own school, rather than having an outside consultant come in. Teachers in a school system where in-service responsibility was taken locally were less likely to express the complaint that in-service was too general. They were also more likely to express satisfaction with their in-service experiences.

McLaughlin (1976) points out that teachers found visits to other schools to be very helpful when implementing new programs. He says, "The teachers felt that seeing a similar project in operation for just a few hours was worth more than several days of consultants delivering talks on philosophy" (p. 345). Wagner (cited in Davies, & Armistead, 1975) advocates that provision be made for opportunities for teachers to visit other schools to observe teachers in situations similar to their own. He sees these visits to be highly educational regardless of the quality of the teaching being observed.

The 1975 Downey Assessment of the Implementation of the 1971 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, concluded that "in the final analysis, teachers viewed each other as the best source of assistance and encouragement" (p. 18). Eighty percent of the teachers surveyed

indicated that other teachers had either "always" or "often" been helpful to them when planning social studies units.

According to Joyce (1980), every teacher should be an expert coach in order to assist other teachers who are attempting to add new skills to their repertoire, and, in turn, to be assisted by them.

Allen (1971), too, advocates the establishment of opportunities for teachers to engage in supervision and observation of, and with, other teachers.

Davis, Maier, and Mitzman (1977) describe a peer teaching approach used in Oregon. The staff of the Oregon System in Mathematics Education (OSME) act as go-betweens, travelling about the state, identifying locally perceived needs in mathematics and providing support for local teachers in organizing to meet their needs. Davis et al. mention the "special informality and sensitivity to other teachers' needs and feelings" (p. 185) which teachers display as in-service leaders. They also point out the credibility which teachers see other teachers as possessing.

Flanders (1980) studied the needs of teachers in the professional development area by spending close to a year as a participant observer in the Professional Development Division of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation.

Teachers in this study reported that they learned how to teach from experience and from colleagues. University teacher education was considered to have been useless in terms of preparing them for the classroom and in-service programs, or "workshops", as Flanders calls them, were rated a poor third. These teachers placed strong emphasis on the desirability of professional development that would capitalize on the assistance that teachers can provide for each other. The most valuable in-service experience was considered to be a one-on-one with a colleague. They also valued opportunities to meet with groups of colleagues to discuss "difficulties, feelings and concerns; to discover what other teaching situations are like; and to explore other solutions to common problems that had been tried" (p. A-11).

Flanders found beginning teachers to be in an especially vulnerable situation. Particularly in a tight job market, they do not want any difficulties they may be experiencing to become public. Hence, the principal is perceived as someone who should be kept unaware of any problems. They really have no one to turn to, other than a sympathetic colleague.

Widespread agreement for the following pattern of professional development was found among teachers:

First, a short period of intensive skills training; basically on how to handle yourself effectively in a classroom.

Second, a long period of apprenticeship, as much as three years, with one or more very experienced teachers, persons who could articulate and demonstrate and allow the apprentice to enter into the teaching process.

Third, having responsibility for your own class with a mature teacher as a "mentor;" that is, someone who could help you with your style, in your specific situation, with your kids.

Fourth, being on your own with opportunities to share with colleagues.

Fifth, eventually, after five to eight years of classroom teaching, depth study of theory and philosophy. (p. A-11)

This pattern reflects teachers' criticisms of the usual mode of presentation of theory prior to teaching experience, when they have no meaningful context in which to place it. Teachers, in this study, showed a growing interest in depth study of theory and philosophy at a later stage in their careers.

This pattern also capitalizes on teachers helping teachers. The suggestion is made that the "Mentor" role in Stage Three could be filled by retired teachers. These people would not be in an evaluative role. Hence, they would not be perceived as threatening. However, they would possess a wealth of experience from which to draw.

Discussion

A growing body of findings indicates that, for teachers, other teachers are the primary source of assistance. It seems evident that teachers prefer the assistance of other teachers to "the noblesse oblige fashion of condescension" (Bush, 1971, p. 60) that they associate with the role of consultants.

Perhaps this is a symptom of the "misery loves company" syndrome, but it seems obvious that it is easier for teachers to voice their concerns to someone else who has, is, or will be, going through the same experiences, than to someone who comes into the school setting for brief visits, and who may be operating in an evaluative role as well as a helping one.

Teachers see suggestions made by other teachers who are able to say, "I tried this with my kids the other day, and this is what happened" (Davis et al., 1977, p. 185) as having a potent credibility not possessed by those who are removed from the classroom.

The importance which teachers place on the assistance of other teachers has two implications for in-service programs. First, it points to in-service leaders being either practising classroom teachers or people who have considerable classroom experience to their credit. Second, it implies that an effective in-service strategy would be to provide time for

teachers to interact with one another, to share ideas, concerns, and experiences.

Location

Calls for school-based in-service are becoming increasingly frequent.

Lippitt and Fox (1971) state that "most in-service activities should be carried on within a setting in which people who work together have an opportunity to learn together" (p. 140).

Rowan, Capehart, and Sharpe (1977) declare that doing this will increase the chance of identifying common needs. The probability of the group recognizing a common need is increased if there is a close rapport within the group (p. 95).

Bacon (1980) has spoken of the failure of the "course-based model" and the need for a "school-focus model" where schools become "learning communities" for staff members.

Watkins (1973) speaks of school-based in-service courses and their advantages.

> The traditional course drawing on teachers
> from widely different experience and geographical
> background spends a great deal of time on
> the inevitable rituals of social interaction
> practised by a group of professionals coming
> together for the first time. Teachers often

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say that they are just about ready to start
on their discussions as the course draws
to an end! Furthermore, school-based
courses can be most closely tailored to
local needs and resources. (p. 88)

Young (1979) refers to the use of "intact

groups" (p. 11), examples of which might be a total

staff, all administrators, or teachers of a particular

subject in a school. The advantages of the intact

group are that acceptance and trust have (hopefully)

already been established and members will provide the

mutual support necessary when attempting to implement

a change of any kind.

Meade (1971) advocates a new role, which he

calls, "training specialist". This role would involve

these functions:

a)   to assist teachers to find the kind of teaching

responsibilities for which they are best suited, and

b)   to inspire those with whom he worked to teach

somewhere near their optimal capacity.

The training specialist would work with teachers

in their own milieu, where practice of new skills

can take place, accompanied by analytical critique.

Discussion

Having in-service programs in the school

setting seems a natural way to implement the "teachers-

helping-teachers" strategy discussed in the previous

section. It facilitates not only the involvement of

practising teachers as in-service planners and leaders,
but also enables participants to provide assistance to
one another afterwards, as they attempt to apply new
ideas in the classroom.

Furthermore, in-service programs are much more
likely to meet the needs of teachers when they take
place in the school setting, than when participants
go to a central location where some large scale program
has been planned. As Flanders (1980) points out, there
are profound differences in schools. These can involve
such factors as socio-economic and cultural patterns,
differences between city-core, suburban, and rural
schools, and differences in parental involvement. When
an in-service program is designed for teachers at a
particular school, it can be tailored to their unique
milieu.

Teachers as Learners

Teachers, as adult learners, wish to be autonomous.
They wish to be responsible for "defining educational
problems, delineating their own needs, and receiving
help on their own terms and turf" (Bailey, 1971, p. 146).

They want to make their own decisions regarding
attendance at in-service programs, rather than having
it imposed upon them. Several studies point out the
importance which teachers place on having this choice.
(Zigarmi, Betz, & Jensen, 1977; Young, 1979).

Trentham (1977) described a Phi Delta Kappa study of Professional Renewal, that indicated that successful in-service programs were, among other things, voluntarily and cooperatively planned.

Flanders' (1980) study points to two reasons for resentment by teachers of laid-on in-service programs. First, they often lack specific relevance, and secondly, they are perceived as meeting interests other than one's own development as a teacher.

The work of the Rapports (1975) and Tough (1967; 1968; 1968; 1971) suggests that adults prefer to learn in informal settings where social interaction is facilitated. This finding would seem to point to the school setting again, where people are comfortable and know the other participants.

Young (1979) points out that adult learners are not willing to defer gratification or relaxation and that, if provision for social interaction is not included within workshops and courses, then participants will simply make the time for it on their own initiative. Young based this statement on the findings of Arrends (1979).

Flanders (1980) discusses the "cellular isolation" (p. A-14) in which teachers spend most of their working hours. Only in their brief moments in the staff room do they have the opportunity to be with other adults.

His findings indicate that, to many teachers, this isolation is a heavy psychological burden. It seems reasonable, therefore, that they would seize upon the chance to interact with other teachers when gathered together in an in-service setting.

Discussion

The two key ideas with respect to teachers as learners are autonomy and social interaction.

Teachers value in-service programs where they have freely chosen to participate and where opportunities have been built in for interaction with other participants.

Impact of Different Delivery Styles

Joyce and Showers (1980) analyzed more than two hundred studies on the effectiveness of various kinds of training methods. They concluded that for mastery of new teaching strategies and/or learning to put alternative curricula in place, the following components must be included: presentation of the theory of the new approach, demonstration, practice under simulated conditions with careful and consistent feedback, and further practice with coaching in the classroom.

Joyce and Showers also concluded that presentation of theory, when used as the sole training component, is not powerful enough to achieve much impact beyond simply awareness of the new strategy. The following two studies provide support for this conclusion.

Hayden and Lloyd (1980) reviewed eight doctoral theses, all of which analyzed an in-service project which was attempting to change teachers' attitudes toward mainstreaming the handicapped child. The participants were evaluated both before and after the in-service, using the "Rucker Bagle Educational Programming Scale" and the "Attitudes Towards Mentally Handicapped Scale." The in-service program employed a variety of techniques, the most prevalent of which was the lecture method, whereby outside experts imparted knowledge on the behaviours and needs of the handicapped. This method, in most instances, was found to have no effect on participants' attitudes. In fact, several cases were noted where the control group, which did not participate in the in-service program, demonstrated as much attitude change as did the in-service participants.

Lawrence's review (1974) indicates there is greater likelihood of accomplishing in-service objectives when participants are in active rather than passive roles. He concludes that "inservice education programs that emphasize demonstrations, supervised trials, and feedback are more likely to accomplish their goals than are programs in which the teacher is expected to store up ideas and behavior prescriptions for a future time" (p. 115).

Discussion

Joyce (1980) does not distinguish between education and training. The desired outcome of in-service, as he views it, is the acquisition of particular skills and their inclusion in the participants' repertoire of teaching skills.

Within this mode then, the findings strongly indicate that teachers must have opportunities for application with coaching, in the classroom. This provides further evidence for a school-based model of in-service, where teachers can try out new skills in a supportive atmosphere.

One of the suggestions of participants of the Conference On Inservice (October, 1980) at The University of Alberta, was the idea of a permanent, rotating position of teacher coach held by a member of each school staff. This approach would capitalize on the importance which teachers already place on their fellow teachers as a source of assistance.

Teacher Preference and Delivery Styles

Johnston and Yeakey (1977) measured administrators' and teachers' preferences for staff development by means of a questionnaire administered to 313 teachers and 23 administrators from elementary schools in New Jersey. Hands-on experience was the unanimous first choice as the preferred method of presentation for in-service. The least preferred method of presentation was the lecture method.

McLaughlin (1976) found, in a Rand Corporation study involving an extensive review of the literature on educational innovations and a survey of 293 change agent projects, that lectures by outside experts, were not considered particularly helpful. In cases where outside experts were seen to be useful, their role was to work closely with teachers in hands-on workshops.

Jones and Hayes (1980), in their questionnaire survey of eighty-six teachers, found that the types of in-service considered to be the most beneficial were demonstration lessons and workshops. A reason suggested for this was that teachers consider these activities to be immediately useful because of their focus on instructional materials and techniques, rather than on underlying theory.

In support of these studies, the NCTM survey (1977) found that teachers place a great deal of importance on taking away from the in-service session materials which can be used in the classroom. One section of the questionnaire consisted of statements, each of which required a response as to the IS and the OUGHT-TO-BE. Ninety-six percent of the elementary teachers gave the highest OUGHT-TO-BE ratings to purposes related to studying new methods, providing opportunity to share ideas and describing new materials and information of direct use in the classroom.

Discussion

While Flanders (1980) has pointed out that teachers, at a later stage in their career, are interested in underlying theory, it seems that the in-service programs that are rated most highly in many surveys are those which are seen to be the most directly relevant to classroom experience.

Teachers do not consider a worthwhile in-service experience to be one of sitting and listening to a lecture about "hands-on" teaching techniques. They like to have

the opportunity to try new ideas out, perhaps even making something which can be used immediately in the classroom.

This may be because of the fact that most in-service is a one-shot effort. When attending only one session teachers want to see a direct return on the time invested. Perhaps as participants in an ongoing program, they would be more willing to take the time to explore alternatives, to look at theory, and generally, to take part in activities for which the classroom payoff may not be as immediate.

Ongoing Versus One-Shot In-Service

Short term in-service does not seem to have an impact on teacher behaviour.

Boschee and Hein (1980) studied a workshop called "Facilitating Inquiry in the Classroom" to determine whether there were any lasting changes in teacher behaviour following the in-service experience.

The in-service was intended to improve teachers' questionning ability. The valuation was based partially on an analysis of the content of the questions teachers asked their students before and after the workshop. No significant change was found in the level of questions asked.

McLaughlin (1976) found that "one-shot training or training heavily concentrated at the beginning of the project, was not effective" (p. 344).

Fullan and Pomfret (1977), on the basis of the seven studies on in-service related to implementation of new programs, which they review, come to the conclusion that

In summary, it appears that intensive
in-service training (as distinct from single
workshops or preservice training) is an
important strategy for implementation.
Apparently, this experience functions to provide
teachers with demonstration models and exper-
iences as well as psychological reinforcement
conducive to resocialization. (p. 373)

Frey, (1980) sees continuing staff development as

helping teachers to experience "ownership" of a new

program. Ongoing in-service sessions are as important

as initial ones, since questions and problems which

cannot be anticipated arise in the course of using an

innovation. Development of materials in ongoing sessions

gives teachers an opportunity to learn the program's

approach by applying it in a concrete way.

In the NCTM (1977) survey, it was found that

satisfaction and positive experience were more probable

when teachers had participated in a continuing series

of experiences with a single topic. Eighty-three

percent of elementary teachers and 79% of secondary

teachers saw a need for follow-up activities.

The Downey Report (1975) concluded that:

(2) One-shot workshops, institutes, and
programs seem to be of little help in
effecting changes at the classroom level.
These activities appear to make teachers
aware of change, yet fall short of committing
them to it.

(3) "Earthquake" program changes negate most
research that has been done on change strategies.
(p. 266)

The report also mentions the key importance of

follow-up activities in the school.

Other articles in support of these conclusions are Zigarmi, Betz, and Jensen, 1977; Baldwin, 1975; Dawson, 1978; and Cruickshank, Lorish, and Thompson, 1979.

Discussion

These findings reinforce many of the ideas discussed previously. One idea which is reinforced is that of having in-service programs in the school setting. The school setting would seem to be far more conducive to longterm in-service than would any other setting.

Going back to Joyce's (1980) typology, one-shot workshops cannot hope to achieve more than an awareness level of impact. It is only over time that we are able to apply what we have learned to the classroom situation.

Resources

Studies point to the fact that, if a change of role is necessary on the part of teachers and students in order for implementation of an innovation to take place, then resources, time in particular, must be made available to allow the change to occur.

A number of educators have called for school jurisdictions to provide funds for release time, in order that in-service sessions may be held during the regular school day (Ryor, 1979; Wilen and Kindsvatter, 1978; Wood & Thompson, 1980). Davies & Armistead (1975) mention a number of school districts in the

United States which are making this commitment.

Feinberg (1974), on the basis of a U.S. national survey, found that schools engaging in "highly effective" in-service programs were paying teachers for any time spent beyond their regular working hours.

Smith and Keith (1971) describe the establishment of an innovative elementary school, which was to employ individualizing and humanizing approaches to instruction. This involved redefinition of pupil-teacher roles, with the teacher taking a catalytic and fac- ilitative role and the pupil, in turn, taking on more individual responsibility.

This experience was not considered to be successful. At the end of the first year, only eight of eighteen teachers were returning, and the principal left in the middle of the second year.

Fullan (1972), in analyzing the Smith and Keith study, concludes that

> there was a failure to cope with two related
> underlying factors in the implementation process
> that seem fundamental: first, there will
> inevitably be uncertainty on the part of users
> regarding the learning of complex new roles,
> and this must be dealt with openly and
> directly; second, necessary time and other
> resources must be built into the implementation
> process in order for this new learning to
> occur. (p. 10)

In the case of this innovative school, teachers agreed on the general goals, but this was not enough. It was necessary that time and effort be focused on the practicalities of the implications of change in role for both teachers and pupils, and this was not done. Teachers felt confused about how to implement the changes, but there was no provision for two critical resources -- time to allow new roles to develop and a support system which would help people to feel comfortable in trying out the new roles. (The idea of a support system in the form of teacher coaches was mentioned previously in the discussion of Joyce's typology.

Discussion

The reasons for the importance of school jurisdictions providing resources for in-service programs are probably two-fold. There is the obvious, practical reason that it is easier to participate wholeheartedly in an in-service session which is held during the day, than after school, when one is physically and mentally tired. But secondly, and probably just as important, by providing the money for release time or other resources, central administrators are indicating that they see the in-service program as being important.

McLaughlin (1976), in describing the Rand Change
-Agent Study, says that the attitudes of central
administrators provided a "signal" to project
participants as to how seriously they should take
project goals and how hard they should work to achieve
them.

Evaluation of In-Service Programs

Commonly in-service evaluation consists of handing
out a questionnaire to participants asking them
whether they enjoyed the session(s) or found it (them)
useful. It may also request suggestions for improvement.

> While most in-service leaders would probably
> prefer that participants enjoyed sessions
> rather than not, such an emphasis seems to be
> wide of the mark. Again, while it is probably
> more important that participants found the
> sessions useful, such statements can only be
> of limited value. (Nash & Ireland, 1979, p. 10)

The Boschee and Hein (1980) study throws doubt
on the reliability of such evaluations by participants.
Their study used a questionnaire immediately following
the workshop, and again, six months later. In the
survey completed immediately after the workshop, 97%
of participants said that they would recommend the
workshop to others. On the six-month follow-up survey
only 40% said they would recommend it. Twenty percent
now said that they wouldn't recommend it under any
conditions.

One possible explanation for the results of the
follow-up is that, six months later, teachers began
to rationalize their lack of behaviour change by
faulting the workshop itself because they had failed
to meet their own expectations of personal growth
held at the time of the workshop.

Not a great deal of attention has been paid to
actually evaluating the effect of in-service
experiences on subsequent teacher behaviour in the
classroom. Nash and Ireland (1979) suggest that
theoretical knowledge of in-service is unlikely to
increase until we have more direct observational data
of classroom behaviour, supplemented by teacher
questionnaires.

The other area which Nash and Ireland consider to
be of significance for evaluation is the in-service
experience itself. "Have the leaders created the
situations they intended? Do the participants perceive
the situations appropriately? What actual learning
opportunities are provided (regardless of the planners'
intentions)?" (p. 11) They suggest that evaluators
might employ Parlett and Hamilton's concept of
"illuminative" evaluation by means of observation of
the actual in-service experience and interviews with
participants.

Ryor (1979), too, has called for documentation
and evaluation of in-service programs on an ongoing
basis rather than using "an add-on or external

appraisal" (p. 15).

Osborne and Bowling (1977) mention several purposes for evaluation of in-service programs. The first has to do with the obtaining of resources. An evaluation can serve as the basis of a case for continued support of the program by a school board or a school administration. It can also serve as part of a needs assessment for the next year's program. Evaluation data can be used to redesign the program itself. Osborne and Bowling point out that this information can be used to promote the in-service program.

> If you can advertise that 91 percent of the participants in the program last year found it effective, then that will encourage participation in a comparable program this year. Or if you can say that 27 percent of the teachers participating in the program had a gripe and that the program has been redesigned to alleviate that gripe, then potential participants have more reason to expect payoff and good use of their valuable time. (1977, p. 69)

Discussion

It seems that only a minimal level of evaluation of in-service programs is being carried out at the present time, with in-service leaders commonly relying "on opinions of the entertainment value of sessions as indicators of success" (Nash & Ireland, 1979, p. 20).

There is a need for far more extensive forms of evaluation than this. In fact research needs to be conducted at a number of levels in order to get a complete picture of what teaching is all about and the place of in-service within that picture.

Flanders (1980) has pointed out the need "to create a body of canonical knowledge out of the reality of teachers' lives" (p. A-38). He has recommended

> that teachers be funded, aided and abetted to do their own research that serves the interests of the profession; focusing on the very nature of teaching, on teaching in the context of comtemporary change, on advancing the judgment and credibility of the teaching professional. (p. C-2)

The Department of Elementary Education Conference on Inservice, held at The University of Alberta in October of 1980, called for research in several areas related to in-service education (Searle, 1980).

Like Flanders, participants at the conference pointed out the need for teachers to become involved in classroom research for their own professional development and as a means of generating data relating to improvement of teaching generally. There is a dire need for more information concerning what actually goes on in classrooms in the tradition of the research carried out by Jackson (1968). Studies such as the

doctoral work of Boag (1980), Odynak (1981), Boyce (in progress), and Graham (in progress) are carrying on the task of looking at what actually goes on in classrooms.

Conference participants also called for the universities to research questions relating to the nature of the learner and learning involved in in-service education. Much more information is needed on the adult learner - motivation, needs, goals, etc.

Thirdly, they called for all groups to conduct evaluations of the long-term effects of in-service programs. This could begin with structured classroom observation of teachers prior to their attendance at the in-service sessions, followed by participant observation of sessions and interviews with the teachers. The evaluation cycle would be complete with a second period of structured observation in the classroom to determine if any change in classroom behaviour had occurred, presumably as a result of participation in the in-service program.

Bolam (1978) has pointed out a need for evaluation of INSET (In-Service Education and Training) to take into account work in the related fields of evaluation research, organization development, survey feedback, industrial management training, innovation studies, and clinical supervision (p. 43).

There is a dearth of information at the present time as to what actually goes on in classrooms, the nature of the adult learner, and the long-term effects of in-service programs. The above procedures would go a long way toward remedying this situation.

Conclusions

Studies, such as those carried out by Joyce (1980), are concerned with the most efficient and effective training methods by which teachers can acquire new skills and transfer them to the classroom. These studies serve a useful purpose, in that there are always new skills to be learned and better ways to teach. However, this approach is very much in a top-down model of bureaucratic control, the mechanisms of which are "techno-rational processes" (Flanders, 1980, p. B-1).

> Techno-rational processes emphasize information-transfer and technique. In this mode of thought, professional development becomes skill training. The solution to educational problems becomes, "fix the teacher." That fixing the teacher has become an industry itself, should be noted. (p. B-1)

Over and over again studies cited in this review of the research on in-service point to the need for a different mode of professional development. These studies are part of what Bolam (1978) has identified as "a powerful movement for teachers to participate in educational decision making in general and in decisions affecting INSET in particular" (p. 33). To meet this need Flanders recommends "that the intensive resources currently committed to workshop management be re-directed

from a 'fix the teacher' strategy to a full professional-
ization strategy" (p. C-1).

The findings of the Flanders study indicate first,
that teachers do not want to use techno-rational control
processes with children, and secondly, that they don't
work anyway.

An assumption of Flanders' study is that we are
experiencing a social-cultural revolution. As a result
of this "the task of teaching has shifted from
programming people to helping people learn to program
and re-program themselves in meaningful ways" (p. B-3).

If this is true of teachers teaching children,
then it should be even more true of teachers' own
in-service experiences.

> Teachers often characterize themselves as "civil
> servants" by which they mean that they are
> without power to execute judgment of implement
> change. Teachers often characterize themselves
> as not professionals because they are highly
> restricted in their range of choices.
> (Flanders, 1980, p. A-25)

Flanders sees two means by which teachers can
become fully professional. The first is the development
of a common meaning, a body of professional knowledge.

> This would involve breaking down the walls of
> isolation, developing and extending support
> capabilities, sharing and consciousness raising
> through collective action, developing
> sophisticated communication systems so that
> the profession can develop the critical level
> of common meaning that overcomes divide-and-conquer
> strategies. (p. B-3)

A common meaning system would allow teachers to
share common goals. Unfortunately, at this point in
time, teachers do not seem to share a common meaning
system. Some of the examples given by Flanders, of the
diversity of teacher meanings are: "student-orientation
versus subject-orientation" (p. A-24), "differences
in socio-economic and cultural patterns between schools
and districts" (p. A-25), "differences between city-core,
suburban and rural schools" (p. A-25), and "a wide
range of values, attitudes, beliefs, opinion and
experience among the teacher population" (p. A-25).

The second means by which teachers can become fully
professional involves a commitment to owning teacher
development "so that PD is not 'done to teachers' but
is done by teachers" (p. B-3). "Teachers ... teach
yourselves" (B-3).

Cane (1973) points out a paradox in this situation
in that "training and research programmes must retain
close contact with the classroom, but these programmes
cannot be effectively organized except by full-time
persons with time to think and plan, and who then -- by
definition -- will no longer by teaching in the classroom"
(p. 77).

One possible solution to this problem is
utilization of teacher centres along the lines of a
theoretical model developed by Slater (1980) in a

Master's thesis completed at Simon Fraser University.
Slater developed nine propositional statements

> forming the basis of a model designed to maximum
> professional growth among teachers, and to
> stimulate innovation in education. These are:
> (1) The teachers' centre is a physical location
> where teachers can learn and help others to learn
> classroom instructional and developmental
> techniques. (2) Fundamental educational
> reform originates with the classroom teacher.
> (3) Outside experts can assist but not
> instigate. (4) Teachers desire professionalism.
> (5) Teachers' centres should offer extensive
> in-service activities for the professional
> development of teachers. (6) Teachers'
> centres should provide a materials source, both
> for manipulation and dissemination. (7) Teachers'
> centres should be the base of extensive research
> and developmental activities. (8) The teachers'
> centre should be run by teachers and for teachers,
> and should be financed by the school system in
> which it is located. (9) The prime focus of
> the centre is the classroom teacher. (p. iv)

Forty-six centres across Canada were surveyed in
this study, with no consistent match found between centres
and the theoretical model. Results indicated that the
focus of Canadian teachers' centres, at present, is
on organized in-service activities and distribution
of materials, with scant attention paid to curriculum
or long-term professional development activities.
In-service programs are developed and carried out for
teachers rather than by them.

While this is the situation at present, it need
not always be the case. Teacher centres are one
possible means by which teachers can achieve the goal,

as Flanders expresses it, of "seizing leadership in the development of education" (1980, p. C-2).

Other solutions may rest with the use of retired teachers as Mentors, as suggested by Flanders (1980), the ideas of teachers coaching one another, as suggested by Joyce (1980) and others, school-focused in-service (Bacon, 1980), peer teeching (Davis, Maier, & Mitzman, 1977), and systematic research into the nature of the classroom situation as perceived by teachers and students, the long-term effectiveness of in-service programs, and characteristics of the adult learner.

Tenets of Effective In-Service Programs

These tenets have been drawn from the preceding review of current research. They provide a brief summary of the major points made.

1. The expressed needs of teachers determine the content and shape of the in-service program.

Teachers perceive those in-service programs as relevant and successful which have been designed specifically to meet their expressed needs, rather than the needs attributed to them by others. As Flanders (1980) points out, "in communication theory, the communication that occurs is defined as the message that is received not as the message that is sent" (p. A-8).

This could point to an individualized type of in-service situation, where the first step would involve a form of assessment to help the individual determine his needs. The next step would involve selecting from an array of choices that one most appropriate to the individual's needs as indicated by the assessment.

2.   Teachers are directly involved in planning the program (goals, content, instructional approach, evaluation, etc.)

The research findings are very strong here. It is extremely important to teachers that they are involved in planning their own in-service experiences. It is also one of two means by which Flanders (1980) sees teachers as becoming fully professional. If they own their professional development, then it is "not 'done to teachers' but is done by teachers" (Flanders, 1980, p. B-3). There is a significant difference between these two approaches.

3.   Opportunities are provided for teachers to learn from one another.

Teachers prefer to learn from one another. They view statements made by other teachers as being highly credible since they too are in the front-lines daily.

4.   The program takes place in the school setting.

The "intact group" provided by the school setting

capitalizes on the mutual support which is already
present. Valuable time does not have to be spent
building it up. Furthermore, if participants work in
the same setting, the chance of identifying common
needs is greatly increased.

5.   Attendance is voluntary.

Teachers are "highly conscientious" (Flanders,
1980, p.A-26). They wish to improve skills and increase
knowledge. According to Young (1979), if a teacher
does not have the opportunity to build up commitment
through participation in planning the in-service, yet
has full knowledge about the program, then the decision
to attend or not will be based on its perceived
usefulness.

Teachers are also highly autonomous. Again,
according to Young (1979), there is little point in
making in-service attendance mandatory, since "Teachers
may openly rebel and not attend. They may be sick on
the day of the workshop. Or, they may attend, and
permit their feelings about having to attend, stand in
the way of their learning. Or, they may attend, and
participate, and then not use the new materials or
approaches" (pp. 9-10).

6.   Opportunities for social interaction are provided.

Teachers spend little of their work day in

interaction with other adults. The opportunity to socialize is therefore a welcome one. Furthermore, in situations where in-service participants are not an "intact group," this social interaction is essential to building up the supportive environment necessary to trying out new ideas and discussing concerns.

7.   If the goal is for participants to master new
      teaching strategies or to implement a new
      curriculum, then provision is made for present-
      ation of theory or description of the skill or
      strategy, demonstration, practice, feedback, and
      coaching for application.

Many in-service programs stop at the first level of the above sequence. Not only are teachers unappreciative of the passive role in which this places them (Johnston and Yeakey, 1977), only about ten percent add a skill to their teaching repertoire when they are merely told about it (Joyce, 1980). For seventy-five percent, all of the above steps are necessary (Joyce, 1980).

8.   The program is ongoing, over time.

To go through the sequence described in #7, a great deal of time is required. One does not acquire new skills during a one-shot workshop session such as that described by Boschee and Hein (1980), which was

intended to improve teachers' questionning ability.

9.   The program has the support of central administrators,
     whether at the school jurisdiction or Department
     of Education level.

     The commitment of those who control the purse
strings is rather meaningful in that it can result in
release time for teachers planning or participating in
in-service programs. It is one thing to talk airily of
teachers taking charge of their own professional
development, and another to back it up by providing
the means of doing so.

10. Provision is made for systematic research, conducted
     by teachers and others, regarding the nature of the
     classroom situation, the long-term effectiveness
     of in-service programs, and characteristics of
     the adult learner.

     If teachers take part of the responsibility for
conducting research in their classrooms, this, again,
will involve professional development which is done by
teachers and not to them.

     Unless research is conducted in each of these
areas, in-service education will continue to be a "slum."
Solid data, rather than hunches and hypotheses, are
needed if current practices are to be changed.

Implementation of Social Studies Curricula in Alberta:
1971 - 1981

> Time present and time past
> Are both perhaps present in time future,
> And time future contained in time past.
>
> (Eliot, 1935, p.I)

Mentor, as does everything, occurred within a milieu determined by other events. This section will be devoted to a description of the events of the previous decade as a means of placing the Mentor Project within a context.

The previous decade had been an interesting one for social studies in Alberta. It began in 1971, with the appearance of a brand new social studies curriculum.

The 1971 Alberta social studies curriculum was viewed as a forerunner, a trail-blazing example for others to follow.

Gunn declared that Alberta "has been able to rise above its limitations and pioneer a new social studies trail, one which has already pointed the way for several provinces" (1971, p. 665). It was hailed as "a brave new step in the teaching of social studies" (St. John's Edmonton Report, January 5, 1976, p. 16).

Its conception preceded Jerome Bruner's impassioned plea for curriculum developers to turn away from the 'structure of the disciplines' approach for which he had long been the spokesman, and instead, deal with knowledge in the context of social problems.

> If I had my choice now, in terms of a curriculum
> project for the seventies, it would be to find a

sense of values and priorities in life. I believe
I would be quite satisfied to declare, if not a
moratorium, then something of a deemphasis on
matters that have to do with the structure of
history, the structure of physics, the nature of
mathematical consistency, and deal with it rather
in the context of the problems that face us. We
might better concern ourselves with how those
problems can be solved, not just by practical
action, but by putting knowledge, wherever we find
it and in whatever form we find it, to work in
these massive tasks. (1971, p. 21)

In fact, Bruner's plea in 1971, for a curricular
emphasis on helping students to deal with social reality, is
reminiscent of the same emphasis, in 1970, by one of the
developers of the new Alberta social studies curriculum.
He mentions the threats of

urban blight, pollution, hunger, poverty,
war, alienation, racism, crime, and a general
worsening of the human condition . . . .

    In the light of this threat, there needs
to be a realignment of educational priorities.
Schools must provide experience in, and preparation
for, the solving of social problems. To this
end, legislators, policy makers and administrators
must be convinced that the social studies deserve
top priority in educational spending during the
seventies. (Ledgerwood, 1970, p. 11)

The major characteristics of the 1971 curriculum were
its valuing orientation and its flexibility (Aoki et al,
1973). The curriculum embraced the idea of the impermanence
of factual content in this day and age, and organized
its knowledge base around sixteen concepts. The knowledge
component of the program was intended to be used in the
service of decision-making about personal and social
problems. One-third of social studies class time was
left unstructured in order to provide students with an
opportunity to deal with problems of current interest to
them. The remaining two-thirds was organized around

very broad themes such as, for example, "Compare
Communities" (Grade 3). Specific content was to be
chosen jointly by students and teachers.

This was obviously a revolutionary new program, not
only in Alberta, but in Canada as a whole, and possibly
in all of North America.

But what happened when the innovation reached the
schools? How did teachers view it? Was it translated
into instruction?

> The curriculum exists only in the experiences
> of children; it does not exist in textbooks, in
> the course of study, or in the plans and
> intentions of teachers. (Ragan, 1966, p. 5)

Criticisms were evident in the Alberta teacher
journals almost immediately (Francombe, 1972;
Lytton, 1972).[5] The major criticisms of the
curriculum itself were "that the stated goals for values
education in the social studies are inconsistent and
therefore confusing. Second, that the values dimension
of the program seems incapable of realization" (deLeeuw &
Zelinski, 1975, p. 31).

Regarding implementation, concern was expressed
about the emphasis on the teacher as unit builder.

> Conservative estimates indicate that it requires
> between 35 and 50 hours of out-of-school time
> to prepare one social studies unit. If you
> multiply those figures by four, the minimum number
> of units traditionally taught each year, you
> have teachers spending between 140 and 200 hours per
> term preparing the language-arts, science,
> music, physical education, and art programs.

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[5] For other reviews of the 1971 curriculum, see
Daniels & Elliott (1974).

> Where is the time for grading, filling
> forms, team meetings, attending in-service
> programs, supervising concerts, and assorted
> other activities which now overfill teachers'
> days? (Massey, 1973, p. 24)

Lack of support materials was also a problem, with

the "program in many areas [being] predicated upon

materials that do not exist or are inappropriate"

(Massey, 1973, p. 24).

The response from educators in the province prompted

the Department of Education, in 1972, to note that

"there have been some expressions of concern and

difficulty" (The Social Studies Scene, June, 1972).

The first major study of the impact of the new

curriculum was a Master's thesis, completed by Crowther,

at The University of Alberta, in 1972. Only about 27%

of the total sample of 322 elementary school teachers

in nine school jurisdictions in the province indicated

that they had adopted the innovation in any meaningful

way.

> It becomes apparent that advances in instruction
> occur not with formal curriculum change, but
> only as changes in printed curricula initiate
> changes at the instructional level. (Chamberlin &
> Crowther, 1973, p. 14)

Three years later, in 1975, a province-wide

assessment was made of the curriculum and the extent to

which it was being implemented in Alberta social studies

classrooms.

Regarding the curriculum itself, the Downey Report

concluded

that, although the Master Plan is highly
commendable and highly acceptable in its major
orientations, its internal inconsistencies
and a lack of teacher awareness of its subtle
intents have rendered it far less useful than it
ought to have been.   (p. 7)

With regard to the extent to which the curriculum

was being implemented in social studies classrooms, the

conclusion was "that there has been considerable slippage

in the translation of the Master Plan into programs"

(p. 11).

Indeed, we conclude that the Master Plan is still,
five years after its creation, far more an idea
in the minds of its creators than it is a guide to
social studies education in the classrooms of
the Province.   (p. 11)

Some of the reasons for the "slippage" were seen

to be "lack of time for program development, lack of

resources, lack of consultative services, and lack of

teacher competence in program development" (p. 11).

Of nine major recommendations, excerpts have been

taken from three that seem most pertinent here.

#2   That the Department of Education undertake a
reassessment of the Master Plan and a thoroughgoing
revision of the major documents in which the
Master Plan is articulated (p. 24).

#5   That teachers and consultants be encouraged to
strive to achieve a broader repertoire and a better
balance of both teacher and student activities in
the classroom (p. 26).

#9 . . . That enlightened programs of in-service
education be initiated cooperatively by Local
Authorities, the Association, the Universities and
the Department to engage practicing teachers in
self-development . . .   (p. 29)

There was obviously a need, as Crowther and Chamberlin

pointed out, to bridge "the gap between printed curriculum and classroom practice" (1973, p. 17).

This process began in 1976, with the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum Interim Edition being approved for introduction to the schools in January 1979 (Ledgerwood, 1979)[6]. This interim edition was to remain in effect for three years, during which time it was to be evaluated and revised, with a final version appearing in 1982 ("Change: The Ultimate Challenge," 1979).

The first step, according to D. Ledgerwood, Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies, was to make what he called "minor revisions to the program itself" [consisting of] a clearer balance among value, knowledge, and skill objectives and an increase in the amount of Canadian content" (1979, p. 4).

The new curriculum contained a far greater degree of content specificity than did the previous one. Now, instead of having a topic area such as "Comparative Communities" in Grade three, the topic was "Interdependence of Communities in Canada Today," with a number of concepts and generalizations which children were to develop as a result of acquiring information on the topic.

The valuing aspect was retained, but de-emphasized. Whereas the 1971 curriculum had focused on a specific valuing model, the 1978 curriculum was oriented around a

_____

[6] For three reviews of the 1978 curriculum, see Connors et al (1980).

particular social inquiry model, which listed the skills which are to be involved in the acquisition and utilization of information in order to reach value decisions.

Three topics were prescribed for each grade from one to ten, and two at Grades eleven and twelve. Each topic was organized around a general value issue and related social issues and competing values. Three categories of objectives were provided -- value, knowledge, and skill. Value objectives were, in turn, of three types, with at least one objective of each type included with each topic. Knowledge objectives consisted of concepts and generalizations. Skill objectives were of two types -- inquiry and participation. An example of each skill objective was provided.

There was a reduction of student input in that the one-third portion of social studies class time which was to be devoted to exploration of issues of immediate concern to students, was reduced to one-quarter of the overall time allotment.

The expanding horizons framework for Grades one to six was retained from the 1971 curriculum. Canadian content was increased to about 60% of the total prescribed (3/4 of class time) program.

The 1978 curriculum retained the social action component (applying the decision). However, it too, was de-emphasized. "While the concept of active involvement

is encouraged as a significant aspect of education for active citizenship . . . . Because of the need for sensitivity in carrying out this type of learning experience, social action is not prescribed, but is encouraged where possible, given the above cautions" (ASSCIE, 1978, p. 15). "In other words, don't rock the boat," as Harlan Hulleman put it in his 1979 review of the new curriculum (p. 7).

The second means of assisting in the implementation of the revised curriculum, identified by Ledgerwood, (1979) was the addition of a large number of materials to the learning resources available for use.

Eight million dollars of Heritage Trust Fund money was put toward development of Canadian content materials. A multimedia kit was developed for at least one topic at each grade level. Other Canadian content materials included a Junior Atlas of Alberta, provided for each student in Grades four to six; a Relief Model of Alberta, one for each school; and several series of books for enrichment purposes--Books for Young Readers, Western Canadian Literature for Youth, and Canadian Literature for Senior Students and Adults.

Additional funds were put toward exemplary units for another topic at each grade level. Consequently, of the three topics for each of grades one to ten, at least two were developed in the form of a multimedia kit and a teaching unit.

Monographs on selected topics were also developed. The first, A Handbook for Unit Planners, was intended to assist teachers in the task of developing units "that reflect the present orientation of the Alberta social studies program"(Massey, 1978, p. 2).

Ledgerwood mentions only the "minor revisions" and "the selection and/or development and production of the learning materials that make a program more teachable" (1979, p. 4) as the means used to increase implementation.

However, in addition to the above, Alberta Education, in cooperation with ACCESS, produced an in-service program entitled "The Revised Curriculum: Intents, Structure, Resources." The program was made available to Alberta Education Regional Consultants, School District Consultants, and Supervisors to be used with teachers around the province, beginning in the 1979-80 school year.

The program consists of seven separate components:

#1   A videotape entitled "Change: The Ultimate Challenge." which provides background information as to the philosophical rationale of the curriculum.

#2   A three-part slide-tape presentation (put onto videotape) entitled "Patterns and Parameters," which attempts to explain the format of the Curriculum Guide, briefly show how topic descriptions can be used in unit building and provide an overview of some of the materials which accompanied the new curriculum.

These two components of the in-service program were intended for large-group orientation. The following components were intended to be used with small groups, following presentation of the first two components of the program.

#3, #4, #5. Three components designed to give teachers an opportunity to work with each of the types of objectives around which the program is organized; either knowledge, skills, or values. In each case, teachers explore the way in which the particular type of objective is used in the Curriculum Guide, and then apply it to a particular unit.

#6, #7. One component intended to acquaint participants with the Teaching Units and the other, the Kanata Kits, resources which had been developed in support of the curriculum.

This in-service package is intended to be primarily for awareness purposes and is commonly referred to as 'Phase One.' 'Phase Two' became the Mentor Project, which was intended to assist teachers to "work through the complex task of exploring alternate classroom organizations and instructional sequences inherent in the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Program" (Mentor Proposal, February, 1980, p. 1).

Mentor originated in a proposal prepared by Frank Crowther, Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies, on behalf of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee in the spring of 1978. The proposal

was given preliminary approval by the Curriculum Branch
of Alberta Education, after costing out by ACCESS-TV
(F. Crowther, personal correspondence, 1981).

In December of 1979, two professors in the Department
of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta,
were approached to submit a Proposal for the development
of the in-service project. The Proposal was submitted in
February of 1980 and development began. Development
continued until March 31st of 1981, by which time all
development documents had been turned over to ACCESS-TV
to begin the process of production.

During the development period (January, 1980 - March,
1981) of this in-service which was intended to assist
in the implementation of the 1978 Alberta Social Studies
Curriculum Interim Edition, two rather significant events
occurred. First, on April 10, 1980, the Honourable
David King, Minister of Education, announced in the
Legislature that "effective September 1st, 1981, what is
known as the 1978 Social Studies curriculum will be
mandatory throughout the Alberta school system."

King referred to "what is known as the 1978 Social
Studies curriculum." Its official title, now, is 1981
Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, some significant
changes having been made to the 1978 curriculum. The
General Value Issue was removed from each grade level
topic, and certain choices were eliminated. Whereas
previously some topics had several related social issues
and sets of competing values, each now had one issue

and one set of competing values. The knowledge objectives
for each topic are now limited to one generalization,
whereas previously there were several. In addition, specific
questions to guide inquiry now accompany the generalization
for each topic. Some content was made more specific;
i.e., Grade 5 Topic C, was previously called "Countries
Like Canada: How They Solve Problems." Seven nations
were suggested as possibilities for study. In the 1981
version, the topic is called, "Canada's Nearest Neighbour:
The United States." However, the steps of the social
inquiry model remain the same, and each unit continues
to be oriented around a social issue. The one-quarter
nonprescribed time also remains intact.

The other significant event during this time period
was the announcement by the Minister that an additional
2.2 million dollars was to be put towards social studies
implementation (Alberta Report, May 15, 1981, p. 38). The
money was to be used for training and release time for
125 teachers around the province, who were to give in-service
workshops for other teachers over a five-month period
during the 1981/82 school year. The Mentor modules were
to be used as training materials for the 125 workshop
leaders and were also to be made available for their use
in the workshops conducted by them.

While there has been criticism of this implementation
scheme by some prominent Alberta educators, such as
Dr. Ernest Hodgson, chairman of Edmonton Public School
Board, others have praised its intents. Mac Kryzanowski,
ATA president, has called it "'a first step' in solving

the training problems 'that have plagued Alberta teachers
for over a decade' " (Edmonton Journal, May 20, 1981, B2).

Alberta Education has not always demonstrated such
an interest in providing provincially developed and
controlled in-service programs for the purpose of assisting
in curriculum implementation.

A look at The Social Studies Scene, published by the
Department of Education, brings to light a concern with
implementation of the 1971 curriculum and provides
evidence of efforts to meet the in-service needs of
teachers at that time.

> October, 1969: Resource personnel for institutes
> and workshops are available through the Department
> of Education, the universities, and The Alberta
> Teachers' Association.
>
> June, 1970: The school year now concluded has
> witnessed a large number of inservice workshops
> on the new social studies. Teams from the ATA
> Social Studies Council, university, and school
> systems personnel, and members of the Department
> of Education have conducted more than fifty
> social studies institutes.
>
> May, 1971: The inservice preparation of teachers
> for the new social studies is continuing to
> receive the active attention of the Department
> of Education consultants and the ATA Social Studies
> Council. Many teachers have now completed two
> or three workshops and are finding success in
> developing their own units of instruction.
>
> September, 1971: Attention will be given to the
> important task of implementation of the recently
> developed social studies courses--several of
> which are being offered for the first time in
> most schools this year.

However, there is no indication of an effort to
provide the breadth or depth of in-service that is
presently being attempted. It is probably summed up

best by the Tripartite Committee, which, upon its
review of in-service practices related to implementation
of new and revised programs in Alberta, concluded that

> Traditionally the responsibilities for implementation
> have been left with the classroom teacher,
> supported by system supervisors, professional
> association resources, or consultative assistance
> drawn from the universities of Alberta and Alberta
> Education. (1980, p. 7)

Why the increased interest in provincially developed
and controlled in-service programs for the purpose of
assisting in curriculum implementation?

The answer may lie, at least partly, in a prevailing
climate of opinion, very much in support of increased
emphasis on in-service as a means of furthering the
implementation process. There are a number of signs
indicative of this trend.

In March of 1979, Dr. B. K. Johnson, Calgary Board
of Education, sent a letter to Dr. E. A. Torgunrud,
Director of Curriculum, on behalf of "the people who have
responsibility for curriculum and program development
in the four large metropolitan school jurisdictions in
Alberta" (p. 1). In it he expressed their concern that
"without considerable attention to teacher in-service,
curriculum changes are doomed to failure" (p. 1) and
their conclusion that "the areas of diffusion and
implementation have been sadly neglected in the overall
planning" (p. 1). He expressed the wish that
Dr. Torgunrud would take their concern to the Curriculum

Policies Board and that the Board would "adopt an inviolate principle that new courses will be introduced only when appropriate funds are made available to give teachers sufficient in-service to make the new programs viable in a majority of class rooms in the province" (p. 1).

In October of 1979, the A.T.A. Social Studies Council Executive presented the Minister of Education with a position paper in which it was stated that "the executive of the Social Studies Council feels that the Alberta Department of Education must more fully recognize its responsibility toward in-service associated with changes in curriculum by planning for and engaging in curriculum in-service activities of a long-term and continuing nature" (p. 4).

Four policy recommendations were made. These were:

- "#1.   It is recommended that Alberta Education adopt
          as policy that curriculum planning should always
          include planning for implementation" (p. 4).

Doing one without the other was likened "to spending all your budget on a car and refusing to spend anything for gas" (p. 4).

- "#2.   It is recommended that Alberta Education adopt
          as policy the encouragement of long-term rather
          than short-term in-service modes" (p. 4).

The demands of complex curricula cannot be met in one-day workshops.

- "#3.   It is recommended that Alberta Education adopt
          as policy that in-service programs should
          emphasize people-based support" (p. 5).

In-school visits to other teachers was mentioned
as an example of this approach.

- "#4.   It is recommended that Alberta Education seek
         strong support for implementation from
         administrators" (p. 5).

Rewards, such as public recognition, were mentioned.

As evidence of the continuing interest of the
A.T.A. in in-service education, the March 5th, 1980,
professional development bulletin was devoted to in-service
("Inservice Education - A Guide to Effective Practice").

The paper defined in-service education, identified
its major components, developed a 'state of the art'
summary of research and experience in the field, formulated
a number of guidelines from this research and experience
data base, and used the guidelines to build models
appropriate to each of three situations in which in-service
might occur.

In 1976 the Curriculum Policies Board was formed,
with the mandate to formulate and recommend to the Minister
of Education policies concerning curriculum development,
implementation, evaluation, and other related matters.

The prevalent concern with matters involving
implementation is evident in that the first program
recommendation to the Minister from this Board indicated
that implementation activities and resources were as
significant as program change. This recommendation stressed
that provision should be made for teacher in-service
and acquisition of necessary resource materials before
programs become mandatory. (Tri-Partite Committee on
Inservice Education, 1980, p. 1)

In the spring of 1979, the Curriculum Policies Board approved in principle the following motion:

> That the C.P.B. recommend that Alberta Education, the ATA and the ASTA cooperate to develop an inservice procedure to introduce and maintain new curriculum. (Tri-partite Committee on Inservice Education, 1980, p. 1)

This recommendation was approved by the Minister and, as a result, the Tri-partite Committee on Inservice was established. Its report, entitled Inservice Education For Implementation of New and Revised Programs, was published in October of 1980.

The Tri-partite Committee sought to carry out two major tasks:

> 2.1 Appraise current provisions and needs with respect to inservice for new and revised provincial programs, and
>
> 2.2 Develop models for the delivery of inservice, having regard for equitable distribution of responsibility among the various delivering agencies. (Tri-partite Committee on Inservice Education, 1980, p. 2)

With regard to the first of the above, the Committee found that the structure and process used for curriculum development, which they considered effective for the most part, was not being used for implementation.

Accordingly, a number of recommendations with regard to implementation were made. The most pertinent is the following:

> A proposal to develop a new or revised program should include implementation plans outlining, in appropriate detail, the critical elements in

putting the new or revised program in place.
(Tri-partite Committee on Inservice Education,
1980, p. 13)

In other words, program development and program implementation should be planned concurrently.

The committee also developed models for the delivery of in-service. Since the revised social studies curriculum had already been developed, it designed a prototype specifically for its implementation. It recommended that an implementation plan be adopted as soon as was possible, using the prototype as an organizing base. At the same time, it called for "a significant commitment by the province, school systems and profession to the implementation of the new program" (p. 15).

The Minister of Education's announcement in the Legislature, in May of 1980, that $2.2 million was to be put toward providing in-service for every social studies teacher in the province during the 1981/82 school year, would seem to be a direct response to this Tri-partite Committee report.

Another sign of the prevalent interest in in-service was the invitational Conference on Inservice, held by the Department of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, in October of 1980. Participants were Albertans who were, at the time, actively involved in teacher in-service education.

As a result of several days of deliberations, participants generated a number of recommendations for the direction which in-service in the province should take.

These recommendations were later sent to The Honourable
David King, Minister of Education, by Dr. J. M. Small,
Assistant Dean, Continuing Education. In a letter
thanking Dr. Small for forwarding these recommendations,
Mr. King said that they would be added to reactions to
the Tri-partite Committee report and would be "very
useful as decisions are being made concerning the nature
of inservice education in Alberta" (February 23, 1981).

The recommendations were as follows:

1.   "Inservice needs to become more school-focused."

This was viewed as a means of helping in-service
to become a longterm process whereby teachers would be
enabled to feel a sense of ownership for the in-service
program. It would also encourage opportunities for
teachers to learn from each other in a supportive
atmosphere. The idea of a teacher 'coach,' as a permanent
rotating position, was suggested.

2.   "More attention needs to be directed to the nature of
the teacher as learner."

The deficit model of in-service, where the teacher is
viewed as someone who needs to be shown how to improve,
must be abandoned, according to conference participants.
Rather, teachers should be viewed as being involved in
continuing personal and professional growth. The role
of in-service leader might be that of organizing the
processes by which teachers direct their own professional
development. The suggestion was made that teachers

regularly receive a sabbatical after each five years
of teaching.

3.   "There needs to be an extension of, and a greater
awareness of, the potential resources for inservice
education."

The value of teacher centres was stressed. The point
was also made that an equivalent amount of time, effort,
and resources should be put into implementation of new
curricula, as is put into development at the present time.

4.   "There is a need for a multi-agency, co-ordinated
approach to in-service education."

The recommendation was made that Alberta Education,
the Alberta Teachers; Association, the Alberta School
Trustees' Association, and the universities, establish a
body whose function would be to plan and coordinate
in-service education in Alberta.

5.   "Research needs to be conducted at all levels."
(Searle, 1980)

Several areas were identified as being in need of
research. These were classroom teaching, the nature of
the learner and learning applicable to in-service education,
and the longterm effects of in-service programs.

Conclusion

The genesis of the Mentor Project, then, was the
result of two major factors.

The first was the failure of the 1971 social studies
curriculum to be fully implemented. This situation could

not be allowed to occur again.

The second was a climate of opinion calling for
an equal amount of attention to be paid to implementation
of new curricula, in all subject areas, as had been paid
to development in the past. Teacher in-service education
was seen as the primary vehicle through which implementation
would occur - hence, Mentor.

Opportunistic Research

Reimer, in a 1977 article, advocating greater use of opportunistic research on the part of sociologists, describes such an approach as meaning "that sociologists rely upon their own unique biographies, life experience, and situational familiarities in doing their research" (p. 469).

> Researchers
>
> too frequently neglect "at hand" knowledge and expertise they alone possess in the engineering of their research ventures. They often ignore or treat as ancillary their own unique biographies, life experiences, and situational familiarity when these could opportunistically serve as important sources for research ideas and data. (Reimer, 1977, p. 467)

Despite this, many "opportunistic" studies have been carried out.

Reimer distinguished three varieties of opportunistic research. His categories will be used to guide this discussion.

a. Taking Advantage of Unique Circumstances or Timely Events

Julius Roth conducted research on a hospital from the vantage point of a bed on a ward.

> Just one-half year after getting my Ph.D and a few months after starting my first full-time professional job, I was faced with a long and uncertain stretch in a tuberculosis hospital. My disease was not a complete surprise. I had

been under observation for tuberculosis for many
years, and my condition, although never serious
up to this point, had apparently been somewhat
unstable. During the course of my schooling I
had already spent two long periods in hospitals
for observation and rest. Now, with a more
frankly active disease than I had had before, it
looked as if my career were going to suffer another
interruption.

However, during the latter part of my graduate
career, my main focus of interest had been the
sociology and social psychology of institutions
and occupations. Rather than an interruption of
my career, a period of hospitalization might be
viewed as a research opportunity. A hospital
bed would make a good observation post. (Roth,
1963, p. vii)

The March, 1946 issue of the American Journal of

Sociology is devoted exclusively to reports by

sociologists who used their World War II military

experiences as the basis for their research.

More recently, Phillip Butler (1977) has analyzed

the "tap code" used by Prisoners of War in North

Vietnam, based on eight years of personal experience.

Everett C. Hughes describes how his appointment

to the staff of McGill University precipitated his

study of French-English relations in Canada.

I had had no previous interest in Canadian
problems and little knowledge of the country.
In the several months between my appointment
and my departure from Chicago for Montreal,
I read a good deal about the French
Canadians . . . I decided to study the French
Canadians simply because their presence
seemed the most interesting fact about

> Montreal and that region. By so slight a
> joining of circumstances, I picked Canada's
> other great problem: the mutual adjustment
> of the two major ethnic groups. (1964, p. 72)

Members of curriculum development projects are beginning to add to the curriculum field through retrospective analysis of their deliberations and the decisions made.

As mentioned previously, at a symposium of the 1977 annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Singer and Altschuld presented papers in which they used this technique to describe a curriculum development project in which they were involved as director and assistant director (Wise and Peshkin, 1977, p. 172).

b.   Taking Advantage of Familiar Social Situations

Elliot Liebow, in his book, Tally's Corner (1967), tells how he came to describe streetcorner life in an urban ghetto.

> From the very beginning I felt comfortable
> with the prospect of working with lower-class
> Negroes. I was born and raised in Washington,
> D.C. ... My father was a grocer and we lived
> in rooms above or behind the various stores
> which he operated. All were in predominantly
> Negro neighborhoods. (1967, p. 233)

In a 1971 article, Denzin used data from an interlude in which he and his two daughters prepared breakfast, to illustrate how the observer can stand

outside his own actions and record them much as he would

any other person's behaviour. The difference is that

the observer can also note what his thoughts were during

the time in which his actions were being recorded.

> This methodology immediately opens for sociological
> analysis all of one's daily actions and
> conversations as sources of data on the self and
> the joint act. Recording one's behavior permits
> the observer to be both objective and subjective.
> He can note that he made a specific act at a
> specific time and place in the company of a
> certain set of others. But simultaneously he can
> probe the subjective features of the act by
> noting what his thoughts were at the time he
> acted. (p. 169)

c.   Taking Advantage of Special Expertise

Ned Polsky's expertise and interest in billiards

was the stimulus to conduct research on pool hustlers.

> Billiard playing is my chief recreation. I
> have frequented poolrooms for over 20 years, and
> at one poolroom game, three-cushion billiards,
> am considered a far better than average player.
> In recent years I have played an average of more
> than six hours per week in various New York
> poolrooms, and played as much in the poolrooms
> of Chicago for most of the eight years I lived
> there. In the course of traveling I have played
> occasionally in the major rooms of other cities,
> such as the poolrooms on Market Street in San
> Francisco, West 25th Street in Cleveland, West
> Lexington in Baltimore, and the room on 4th and
> Main in Los Angeles. (1969, p. 35)

Cuyler (1980) took advantage of knowledge gained

through participation as a docent (tour guide) at the

Edmonton Art Gallery, to conduct research on the goals

and objectives of docents at the Art Gallery of Ontario

and the Art Gallery of Hamilton, as well as at Edmonton.

Richardson (1960), in a study of island fishing villages in eastern Canada, used his past as a seaman to gain the respect of the coastal fishermen, thus facilitating entry into the field.

Wolcott (1973) capitalized on his own background experience as a vice-principal and teacher, and his status as a regular faculty member at a university (pp. 12-13) in his ethnographic study of an elementary school principal. He found his experience as a vice-principal, and particularly his position as a university faculty member, to enhance his acceptance on the part of school principals and central office administrators in the district. His teaching experience proved to be an asset in his acceptance by the teachers at the school.

Another benefit was his familiarity with the language used.

> If I was told that someone had "just returned
> from representing the ESPA at an ASCD workshop
> at the Hilton to compare SMSG with Greater
> Cleveland," my only uncertainty was, "which
> Hilton?" (Wolcott, 1973, p. 12)

As a pastor, Laud Humphreys had spent a great deal of his time counselling homosexuals. It was these experiences which prompted him to conduct the research reported in his book, Tearoom Trade (1970).

As a former teacher of Grade One, and a developer of the curriculum materials which were being used in the classroom in which she was observing, Odynak (1981) brought a wealth of experience to her ethnographic study of a Grade One teacher.

Methodological Advantages of Opportunistic Research

Reimer (1977) mentions three major advantages to opportunistic research. The first is that it facilitates entry into the research setting. The researcher has a genuine purpose for being in the setting, other than his research. "Furthermore, since the researcher knows the expected behavioral routines associated with the setting, it may become an 'open setting' in which all regions are accessible" (Reimer, 1977, p. 474). Lutz and Ramsey (1974) also point out that in addition to the collecting of information as one goes about one's ordinary tasks, the alert investigator can seek out additional data which would not normally come within his sphere of activity.

"A second advantage of this research strategy is that it facilitates rapport between the investigator and the persons being studied" (p. 474). Trust between the members of the group has already been built up. The researcher shares the language and symbolic meanings of the other group members. These enable the

investigator to ask meaningful and relevant questions and to understand how best to probe the more sensitive areas.

"A third advantage of an opportunistic research strategy is that it provides for accurate interpretation" (p. 474). According to Reimer, being a member of the group "serves as a built-in truth check" (p. 474). The researcher, to some extent, has been socialized in the same way as other group members and shares their vernacular. He will have a good grasp of which information 'rings true' and which does not.

> Furthermore, the researcher can readily employ introspection and retrospection to aid in his interpretation of other's behavior or behavioral accounts. In this way the researcher is better able to link the expressed statements of members with their actual behavior. (p. 474)

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Participant Observation Procedures

According to McCall and Simmons (1969), participant

observation

> . . . involves some amount of genuinely social
> interaction in the field with the subjects of
> the study, some direct observation of relevant
> events, some formal and a great deal of informal
> interviewing, some systematic counting, some
> collection of documents and artifacts, and
> open-endedness in the directions the study
> takes. (p. 1)

Despite the open-endedness of studies involving

participant observation, they can generally be broken

down into a number of steps and concerns. These will

be discussed here under the following headings:

Establishing the Research Design, Gaining Entry and

Establishing Good Relations, Taking a Role, Collection

of Data, Data Analysis and Findings, and Validity and

Reliability.

Establishing the Research Design

According to Smith and Pohland:

> Persons engaged in qualitative research
> strategies disagree regarding the degree to
> which there should be a problem, some problem,
> or no problem that initially guides the
> observer. (1974, p. 38)

At the very least, the researcher usually begins

with a "sense of something problematic to be investigated"

(Williamson et al., 1977, p. 38, emphasis in the original).

However, the research design sometimes takes time to develop in its final form. Researchers often set out to conduct their research in a way that is quite different from the mode in which they eventually carry it out.

Liebow (1967), in the first year of his study of a black ghetto, limited his focus to the near proximity of a Carry-out restaurant and to the inhabitants of the street corner in front of it.

Originally he had intended to conduct several related studies during that year,

> each covering is a strategic part of the world
> of the low-income male. I thought of doing a
> neighborhood study, then moving on say, to a
> construction laborer's union, then a bootleg
> joint, and perhaps rounding these out with a
> series of genealogies and life histories.
> (p. 236)

William Whyte (1955) began his study of a slum district with plans to involve ten researchers, but abandoned the idea. Upon reflection, some years later, he speculates that "I found Cornerville life so interesting and rewarding that I no longer felt a need to think in large-scale terms" (1955, p. 286).

After abandoning the ten-man research team idea, he wrote up a number of other research proposals. Again, when reading them some years later, he says, "it seems to me that the most impressive thing about them is their remoteness from the actual study I carried on" (1955, p. 285)

It is not important that the researcher go into the setting with a carefully thought out research design. What is important is that he be willing to explore possibilities within the setting of which he may not even have been aware prior to entry.

Like Whyte (1955), Liebow (1967), and others, this researcher began with a scheme which was much more grandiose than that actually carried out.

In rereading the proposal, data collection was to include participant observation of the meetings of the development committee, participant observation with a group of pilot teachers, use of ad hoc committee meeting tapes and attendance at one or two of the meetings, collection of pertinent documents, formal and informal interviews with members of the development committee, and formal group interviews with one group of pilot teachers.

As with Whyte (1955), my original proposal would have been "the ruination of me" (p. 284). The advice was given, at the proposal presentation (April 8, 1980), to narrow the focus, and consequently plans for participant observation and interviewing of pilot teachers, attendance at ad hoc committee meetings, and formal interviewing of members of the development committee, were all abandoned.

The researcher still intended to use ad hoc committee tapes, since all of these tapes were in the possession of the developers. In fact, at that time,

the developers were operating under the assumption that they were the owners of these tapes, since the arrangement was that the person who did the taping gave the tapes to the developers at the end of each ad hoc committee meeting. The developers were supposed to give empty tapes in exchange at some later date.

However, when formal permission to use the tapes was requested, it was denied. Therefore, the focus of the research became the development committee, where it likely should have been from the beginning.

Gaining Entry

This study was a form of opportunistic research, coming under Reimer's (1977) category of "Taking advantage of unique circumstances" in the spirit of Julius Roth (1963) in his hospital bed or Phillip Butler (1977) in his North Vietnam prison cell.

In this case, the researcher was already one of six members of the Mentor development committee when the decision was made to conduct a study of the decision-making processes of the committee, using a variation of participant observation methodology.

As Bollens and Marshal point out, "the easiest way to get access to a group is to be part of that group already" (1973, p. 49). They advise students to capitalize on the research opportunities offered by groups to which they already belong.

Reimer (1977), too, indicates that one of the chief

advantages of this type of research is the way in which
it facilitates entry into the setting, since the researcher
has a legitimate purpose, other than his research,
for being there.

Lutz and Ramsey (1974) discuss a possible disadvantage
of the situation where the researcher is already a member
of the group which is to be investigated.

> If one owns a role in the society the problem
> of entry is easily achieved but his access to
> competing cliques or to other hierarchial
> levels may be made even more difficult. If
> one is an outsider seeking permission to
> enter, the above two problems may be less
> difficult once initial permission is granted.
> But access to informal structure will be more
> difficult. In any case attention to these
> problems is indicated. (p. 7)

In the case of this researcher, access to competing
cliques or to other hierarchial levels was not a problem,
since the focus was on a small group of six developers.

Taking a Role

Gold (1971)[7] identified four roles for the researcher
conducting field work. These are complete participant,
participant-as-observer, observer-as-participant, and
complete observer.

Complete Participant

The complete participant role involves concealment
of one's true purposes and the pretense of being a member
of the group one is observing. This approach is seldom
used (Erikson, 1970).

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[7] Gold's work is an extension of the thinking of
Junker (1960).

Laud Humphreys relates his use of this approach in
Tearoom Trade (1970). He was able to conduct research on
homosexual activity in public washrooms by assuming the
role of voyeur and performing the essential function of
lookout. The role of voyeur enabled him to observe the
homosexual activities, while his function as lookout
enabled him to surreptitiously record license plate
numbers, which he used to locate names and addresses.
Later, he and his assistant interviewed the individuals
whom he had observed, in their homes, under the guise of
conducting a health survey. He altered his appearance,
and in no way indicated that he was aware of their
homosexual activities.

Lofland and Lejeune (1970) describe a field
experiment in which individual sociology graduate students
attended Alcoholics Anonymous meetings in order to
determine whether newcomers were received differentially
depending on their apparent social class.

A variation of this role is the type of study
where the researcher actually joins in a group and serves
as a genuine member (as opposed to the pretense of being
a homosexual or an alcoholic, to use the examples
already mentioned). Donald Roy took this role in a
number of jobs involving various types of blue-collar
work in factories, construction gangs, and oil fields
(1970). Dalton (1959) worked as a manager.

These roles still involve a degree of

of deception in that the investigator's research purposes
are not revealed.

The chief advantage of the role of complete
participant lies in the fact that it allows the researcher
to observe aspects of behaviour which might otherwise
be missed (whether through lack of opportunity or
deliberate concealment) by the individual who has identified
himself as an observer. In Humphreys' case he would not have
had the opportunity to observe at all if he had not
assumed the role of complete participant, since the
homosexual activity did not take place in the presence
of anyone suspected of being a policeman or a "straight."

Gold (1971) mentions two dangers of this role. At
one extreme the researcher may be so self-conscious about
revealing his identity that it may hamper his ability to
play the role of participant. At the other extreme he
may become so involved in the role that it is incorporated
into his self-conceptions, thus biasing his observations.

Another obvious disadvantage to the use of this role
is that the researcher cannot record events in the
presence of those he is observing. Therefore, he must
rely on his memory and any surreptitious notetaking which
he might be able to do.

This can be sheer hard work. Whyte (1969) says, "I
can well remember a period when Roy was putting in 10 hours
a day at the plant and two hours a night at the typewriter

after coming home" (p. 43).

There are certain ethical considerations involved in the taking of this role as well. Whyte (1969), in a discussion of this role (which he calls participant observation), skirts the issue of the deception involved:

> Does this mean that the intellectual interests of the participant observer are completely unknown to those he is observing? Not necessarily. The workers around Roy knew that he had a good deal more education than they, and they seemed to assume that he had fallen on hard times and needed the job and in addition had some intellectual interest in what factory life was all about. Some workers and members of management in the steel mill knew that Dalton was taking courses for an advanced degree at the University of Chicago. They cast him in the respected role of a student working his way through school--which indeed he was. (pp. 41-42)

Both the Humphreys (1970) and the Lofland and Lejeune (1970) studies have received a great deal of criticism on ethical grounds.

Davis (1970) criticizes the Lofland and Lejeune study on three grounds. First, neither the A.A. members nor their leaders were given the option of whether or not to participate in the experiment. Secondly, "posing as alcoholic newcomers" made light of the values, modes of operation and mission of A.A. Thirdly, this approach avoids the dues which the researcher must pay: i.e., "the conscious opening up of self to the possibility of rebuttal, disaffection, divided loyalties, compromising attachments and difficult disclosures; the price of engagement as opposed to that of mere doing" (p. 274).

Roth (1970), in an article which attempts to take the issue further than Davis, or Lofland in his response to Davis, has postulated that all research is secret to some degree for the following reasons:

> 1. The researcher usually does not know everything he is looking for himself when he first starts out and structures his study to some extent as he goes along. Some of the things he finds of interest to study as the research goes on are things which the subjects might have objected to if they had been told about it in the beginning.

> 2. In many types of study of social behavior, the researcher does not want the subjects' behavior influenced by his knowledge of what the observer is interested in.

> 3. Even if the subjects of a study are given as precise and detailed an explanation of the purpose and procedure of the study as the investigator is able to give them, the subjects will not understand all the terms of the research in the same way that the investigator does . . . Therefore, even in those cases where the researcher has made a deliberate effort to explain to his subjects just what he is going to do, he will frequently find them acting surprised when he actually goes ahead and does it. (pp. 278-279)

Participant-As-Observer

When the researcher acts in the participant-as-observer mode, he makes other members of the group aware of his dual role. However, the role of researcher is subordinate to the role of participant.

This role is often used in community studies, where the relatively lengthy periods of interaction allow for trust to build up between the researcher and the informants and the researcher can observe changes that occur over time.

William F. Whyte describes his use of this role in
Street Corner Society (1955). This involved living in an
urban slum for a period of several years and becoming
a member of a street corner gang.

Problems inherent in this approach are the danger
of over-identification of the researcher with group
members and vice-versa. The researcher may "go native"
and lose his research perspective. The other possibility
is that the informant may identify with the researcher
to the extent that he is not able to continue functioning
as an informant. He becomes too much of an observer
(Gold, 1971).

Another problem, not mentioned by Gold, but sometimes
encountered in studies where the observer takes the
complete participant or participant-as-observer role, is
the confrontation with a decision as to the extent, if
any, he will engage in activities which are illegal or
which he considers to be immoral.

Whyte encountered this situation at one point during
his three-year sojourn in Cornerville. In order to obtain
an inside view of politics in the district, he became
a volunteer worker in a political organization. This
brought him face-to-face with an ethical situation which
he had not prepared himself to meet.

On election day he was asked to "repeat," a practice
practice involving voting at more than one polling place.

He voted three extra times for his candidate. At the
last polling place he voted in the name of a Frank Petrillo,
a forty-five year old Sicilian fisherman, who stood five
feet nine. Whyte, being twenty-three years old and six
feet tall, experienced some misgivings, but went ahead
with the deception anyway. He was challenged, but a
"co-operative" warden allowed him to leave.

> That was my performance on election day.
> What did I gain from it? I had seen through
> firsthand personal experience how repeating was
> accomplished. But this was really of very little
> value, for I had been observing these activities
> at quite close range before, and I could have
> had all the data without taking any risk. Actually,
> I learned nothing of research value from the
> experience, and I took a chance of jeopardizing
> my whole study. While I escaped arrest, these
> things are not always fixed as firmly as the
> politician's henchman think they are. A year
> later, when I was out of town at election time,
> somebody was actually arrested for voting in my
> name . . .
> The experience posed problems that transcended
> expediency. I had been brought up as a respectable,
> law-abiding, middle-class citizen. When I
> discovered that I was a repeater, I found my
> conscience giving me serious trouble. This was
> not like the picture of myself that I had been
> trying to build up . . . . I had to learn that,
> in order to be accepted by the people in a district,
> you do not have to do everything just as they
> do it. . . .
> I had to learn that the field worker cannot
> afford to think only of learning to live with
> others in the field. He has to continue living
> with himself. If the participant observer finds
> himself engaging in behavior that he has learned
> to think of as immoral, then he is likely to
> begin to wonder what sort of a person he is after
> all. (1955, pp. 314-317)

Whyte, upon reflection, came to the conclusion that
he had made the wrong decision.

Roy (1970) describes a situation in which he was able to effect a compromise. As part of a study of labour union organizing campaigns, he had been observing the interaction between "scabs" and strikers at a midnight shift change. Following the departure of the strikebreakers, one of the strikers observed that a number of cars were unaccounted for, their owners likely waiting inside until the strikers left. The decision was made to pretend to leave, hoping that this move would cause the state patrolmen who were in attendance to leave as well. Then the strikers could return and deal with the remaining strikebreakers without the hindrance of being observed.

> When the rocks started to fly, I found myself in an
> awkward situation. What if the police weren't as
> dumb as the strikers thought they were, saw through
> the ruse, and returned to pack us off to jail?
> What was I doing, at my age and with all those
> diplomas, shoulder to shoulder with a bunch of men
> throwing rocks at a bunch of other men in the middle
> of the night? I didn't have time to go to jail.
> I had to get back to Durham no later than the next
> day, back to my classes, to my eager students.
> Should I make a brisk dash for the cover of yon
> cornfield before the police returned? Could I
> make it, before getting shot, if they should return
> immediately? Surely the first car in the caravan
> of dented bodies and fenders would have reached
> a telephone by now. But if I streaked for the
> cornfield, the strikers would see it, and such
> behavior would mark the end of my study of union-
> management relations in these parts, perhaps in
> the entire South. Maybe it would be better if I
> were to start throwing things myself, before
> the strikers noticed my inactivity and interpreted
> it as anti-union behavior; . . . I made my decision.
> Sweating freely--it was a warm night--I ran back
> and forth with the strikers, stooping and swaying
> and swinging my arms in a balletic imitation of
> a man throwing rocks. Finally the last car screamed
> around the bend in the road. With my companions
> I made a rapid but dignified dash for my own
> automobile. The cops did not show up. (Roy,
> 1970, p. 242)

Observer-As-Participant

The observer-as-participant role calls for relatively more formal observation than the two roles just mentioned. The researcher's purposes are made publicly known at the outset and it is the role of observer which takes priority.

There is less risk of "going native" when this research role is assumed. However, because the observer does not function as a true participant in the ongoing activities, the possibility of misunderstanding those he observes, and in turn, that they will misunderstand him, looms large.

Bain discusses both of these problems in an article entitled "The Researcher's Role: A Case Study."

Bain used the milieu of a laundry plant to study the social skills required by certain jobs. At one point in his study the volume of business was down and a few workers were laid off. At that particular stage he was watching particular workers and timing their interactions.

> Was I a spy from the university? Was I trying to find out who talked too much to determine who were the least efficient employees? . . . But these were some of the suspicions which various persons began to entertain. Hostility and suspicion on the part of certain workers became open and obvious. (1960, p. 149)

Bain also incurred problems because of a misunderstanding on his part as to how best to approach people for the information which he needed.

He tried to administer a sociometric questionnaire, with little success.

> I was forced, therefore, to change the method
> somewhat and ask each worker, instead, merely to
> choose from the list the ten persons he or she
> liked best. I further thought that if I could
> interview the workers in the privacy of their
> homes I could secure better cooperation.
> Therefore I went to the members of other work
> groups, requesting permission to interview them
> at home . . . .
> Two days later I received word that a
> certain worker was "spreading a rumor." The
> rumor was to this effect: "Well, I've finally
> found out what Mr. Bain is here for--he's going
> to try to find out who likes and dislikes each
> other here!" While this was literally true, it
> was hardly the interpretation I wanted. (1960,
> pp. 147-148)

Complete Observer

The complete observer remains outside the participant role. He attempts to observe in ways which make it unnecessary for participants to take him into account.

This involves a range of roles with, at one extreme, the observer hiding behind a one-way mirror, to reducing participation to a nonverbal level and maintaining a psychological detachment from one's subjects. Occupations such as janitor, cleaning woman and elevator operator have been mentioned as relatively invisible roles for a researcher to assume (Pearsall, 1970).

The role of complete observer involves the least chance of "going native" (Gold, 1971, p. 261). At the same time it carries the greatest risk of misunderstanding the observed. The observer is not in a position to request qualifications of statements or to ask further questions which his observations have brought to mind. There is also danger of ethnocentric or egocentric rejection of data because of failure to view it in the same way as one's subjects (Gold, 1971; Pearsall, 1970).

Gold points out that this role alone is rarely the dominant one employed by a researcher. It is sometimes employed as a means to reconnoitre a social setting in preparation for more intensive study in another field role.

Williamson et al. make the point that the researcher does not necessarily assume one particular role for the duration of a study. Different situations and different respondents may mean that it is most expedient for the researcher to assume a different role (1977, p. 207).

Laud Humphreys (1970) provides an example of this. For the greater part of his study of homosexual behaviour in public washrooms he took the role of complete

participant. However, after he was able to identify what he calls his "intensive dozen" (p. 36), he revealed his research purposes to those men and was able to interview them. At this point, with these individuals, he was acting in the role of observer-as-participant.

Influence of Subjects on Role Taken

Another point to be made is that the subjects of the study have a bearing on the role taken by the researcher.

Various factors in this regard may hinder the researcher from assuming the role which he considers to be strategically the most optimal. For instance, if subjects lack a conception of the observer role they will assimilate him into a role with which they are familiar such as a reporter, missionary, or someone who plans to write a book.

"Subjects always 'locate' researchers in some meaningful frame or context and relate to them accordingly" (Williamson et al., 1977, p. 207). Factors such as age, sex, ethnic group, physical attributes, race, and educational background can all have an effect on the way in which subjects perceive the researcher.

Rosalie Wax, a Caucasian, spent two years in a Japanese Relocation Center and a center for "disloyal"

Japanese during World War II. In her case, her race
was the factor which had the greatest effect on the
way in which she was perceived by subjects.

In her analysis, written twelve years later, she
had this to say about the roles to which she was
assigned by subjects:

> Her discomfort was increased by the fact
> that her potential informants had a series
> of crippling roles ready and waiting for her.
> To them she was at best a well-meaning but
> ignorant pest in whose presence one had to
> keep a strict watch on one's tongue. At worst
> she was a clever and hypocritical spy for the
> administration, trying, by kindness, to lead
> them to betray themselves or their fellows.
>
> Desperately she tried to see herself
> as "a person to whom one gave information"
> while everyone about her regarded her as "a
> person to whom one gave no information."
> (1960, p. 175)

According to Vidich and Bensman (1960), the field
worker in a small town "is accorded the status of an
F.B.I. agent or Communist infiltrator depending on his
name, origin, dress, or accent" (pp. 193-194).

They found, too, that the social status of
respondents had a profound effect on the perceived
social status of the researcher.

> Simultaneously he may be respected because
> he is educated; feared because he is an
> outsider; disdained by the upper class and
> envied by the middle class; rejected as a
> long-hair by the uneducated and accepted by
> those of learning; a confidant to some, a
> non-involved friend to others, and a downright
> snooper to still others. (p. 193)

Summary

The researcher conducting field work may adopt one or more of several roles which are available. The role taken will vary according to the degree to which it is "openly defined as a research role or . . . concealed beneath a performance of some existing role in the organization" (McCall & Simmons, p. 30). The choice is dependent upon the type of situation into which the researcher wishes to gain access, and the kinds of information desired once entry has been obtained, and certain characteristics of the researcher as a person.

Each role has its attendant advantages and disadvantages and the researcher weighs these carefully in making a choice.

Variations of the participant-as-observer and observer-as-participant roles are most commonly chosen. The complete participant role has been criticized on ethical grounds. It is also extremely hard work, as the researcher must fulfill all of the obligations of a participant while in the field and those of an observer on his own time.

The complete observer role is not very practical in terms of obtaining data which is free of egocentric or ethnocentric bias.

The choice of role is extremely important.

As McCall and Simmons (1969) point out,

The role which he claims--or to which he is
assigned by the subjects--is perhaps the single
most important determinant of what he will
be able to learn. Every role is an avenue
to certain types of information but is also
an automatic barrier to certain other types.
The role assumed by the observer largely
determines where he can go, what he can do,
whom he can interact with, what he can inquire
about, what he can see, and what he can be told.
(p. 29)

Role Taken In This Study

Whyte (1969) has said:

The most intimate view of the organization is
secured by the participant observer: the
investigator who gathers his data while serving
as a genuine member of the organization. (p. 41)

The role described above would be that of complete

participant, according to Gold's (1971) continuum of

roles--complete participant, participant-as-observer,

observer-as-participant, and complete observer--because

Whyte is referring to a situation where the investigator

is a genuine member of a group, but does not reveal his

research purposes.

The role used in this study would come under the

heading, participant-as-observer. Characteristics of

the role chosen that makes this title appropriate are

as follows:

1.   other members of the development committee were

aware of the dual role of the researcher,

2.   during meetings and other interactions the role of

researcher was subordinate to that of developer (participant).

While the title, "participant-as-observer" has been chosen to describe the role taken, a more precise pinpointing of the role of the researcher would be at some point on the continuum between that of complete participant and participant-as-observer.

There are two reasons for pinpointing the role of the researcher in this location. First, the term, "participant-as-observer," as it is commonly used in studies, seems to emphasize observation more than participation, or, at least, to use the term "participation" in a sense other than meaning serving as a genuine member of the milieu in which the research takes place.

For instance, Wolcott (1973) uses the participant-as-observer role in his ethnographic study of an elementary school principal. He did not act as a principal. Rather, he followed the principal around as he went about his daily activities, staying in the background and writing notes.

Boag (1980) also took a participant-as-observer role. This, again, involved observation. He did not take the role of a teacher implementing a curricular change proposal. He observed two teachers doing so.

Field (1980) took this role in her study of four public health nurses. She accompanied the nurses on their daily visits to clients, avoiding active participation

unless asked a direct question. She did not operate, herself, in the role of a nurse, other than to the extent of being introduced as such to clients.

As McCall and Simmons (1969) point out, few studies have employed the method by which the "scientist virtually performs the role of a genuine member and counts as very critical data his resulting subjective experience" (p. 1).

The fact then that studies that rely more on observation than participation are called participant-as-observer studies would seem to push this particular study, in which the researcher performed all the functions of a genuine member, along the continuum to "complete participant." However, there was no degree of deception involved. From the time that the decision was made to undertake the study, other members of the development committee were made aware of it. Therefore, the observer cannot be called a "complete participant" in the sense that Gold uses the term.

For these reasons, then, it can be seen that the role taken in this particular study would fall on the continuum somewhere between the roles of complete participant and participant-as-observer.

Collection of Data

Participant observation employs a kind of "methodological eclecticism" (Williamson et al., 1977, p. 200). While observation "is what the method begins

with, ends with, and uses throughout" (Pearsall, 1970, p. 345), such studies employ other means which are suitable to the purposes of the researcher. These might include such techniques as personal introspection, interviewing, document analysis, and questionnaires.

"Events are recorded by word description, notational symbols, graphs, flow charts, movies, sound tapes, or other devices according to the degree of detail and precision needed" (Pearsall, 1970, p. 345).

Cusick (1973), in his participant observation study of high school students, used six major approaches. These were attendance at those classes and meetings which were attended by the students whom he was particularly observing, formal and informal interviewing, use of records (honour roll, activity lists, club membership lists, past yearbooks, and old newspapers), and observations, which were recorded by means of field notes at the end of each day.

In her participant observation study of four nurses, Field (1980) recorded nurse-client visits by means of a tape recorder and field notes. She interviewed the nurses quite extensively, conducting four formal interviews and a number of informal ones. Documents were collected as well.

Boag's (1980) doctoral dissertation was a participant observation study concerned with description and explanation of two teachers' perspectives of a curricular change proposal. He relied on a tape recorder to record

classroom interactions, supplemented by field notes,
both formal and informal interviewing of the teachers,
and some collection of pertinent documents.

Odynak (1981), in her ethnography of a teacher
implementing a curricular innovation, relied mainly on
observation and the recording of field notes, with some
interviews. She used a tape recorder at times, but found
that it was not particularly effective in picking up
classroom interactions.

Wolcott (1973), in his ethnographic study of an
elementary school principal, collected documents (routine
notices, meeting agendas and handouts, copies of
school records, reports, and correspondence), interviewed,
carried out mini-studies of activity and social interaction
patterns of the principal, solicited pupil impressions by
means of a sentence completion exercise, and distributed
a ten-page questionnaire to teachers. He recorded
observations by means of field notes and used a tape
recorder during interviews and occasionally during meetings.

While some researchers advise that it is inappropriate
to take notes in the presence of subjects (Lofland,1970;
Schatzman & Strauss, 1973; Bogdan & Taylor, 1975),
Wolcott (1975) tells us that, "I am inclined to carry
my notebook everywhere and to write in it constantly,
even intrusively, while people are talking to me or in
my presence" (p. 122).

Some participant observation studies are highly dependent upon formal interviewing, using observation as a means to gather data from which questions are generated. Other researchers seem to be in agreement with Doc's advice to William Whyte.

> "Go easy on that 'who,' 'what,' 'why,' 'when,' 'where,' stuff, Bill. You ask those questions, and people will clam up on you. If people accept you, you can just hang around, and you'll learn the answers in the long run without even having to ask the questions;" (1955, p. 303)

Whyte found this advice to be valid.

> As I sat and listened, I learned the answers to questions I would not even have had the sense to ask if I had been getting my information on an interview basis. (Whyte, 1955, p. 303)

This researcher, too, took Doc's advice to heart. Naturally, questions were asked, but not during formal interviews; rather, during hundreds of conversations over coffee in the staff and graduate student lounge, over lunch, walking down the hall after meetings, in the car on the way to pilot sessions, and so on.

As a developer, this researcher took part in all of the activities involved in that role. This included such diverse activities as attendance at development committee meetings, working either individually or with other members of the development committee in writing segments of the in-service program, pilotting modules with groups of teachers, learning to operate a camera in preparation for filming demonstration lessons, editing videotapes, and observing demonstration lessons.

Development committee meetings from April 11, 1980
to March 25, 1981, were recorded by means of a cassette
tape recorder. It was set in the middle of the table
prior to each meeting. The table was usually so cluttered
with books, papers, and other assorted items that the
tape recorder was relatively unobtrusive. For the most
part participants did not seem particularly aware of it.
However, from time to time a comment would be made.

On one occasion, a developer, in jest, had
enlightened us with his definition of a good teacher
as, "someone who sells crap to kids so that they like it"
(Aug. 26, 1980). The reaction was to remember the
presence of the tape recorder and its purpose.

> Brad - She's going to write snide comments in
> her thesis about what we think of teachers based
> on these remarks.
>
> Susan - ( )
>
> Brad - I deny it. It's not our perspective.
> (Said directly into the mike)
>
> Ted - Just remember that we're trying to set this
> up so we're all on your committee, so God help
> you, Sue!

(Aug. 26, 1980)

The majority of the development committee meetings
were transcribed in full. By the time some of the
later meetings came to be transcribed, categories had
been ascertained, and as a consequence, only relevant
portions of the tapes were transcribed. In the end,
typed transcriptions totalled approximately 700 pages.

On a very few occasions, the researcher had other commitments and was unable to be present at development committee meetings. On those occasions, the usual procedure was to send the tape recorder along to the meeting with another member of the development committee. On one occasion, which involved a meeting between the Project Coordinator from ACCESS and two of the developers, one developer kept notes for me!

Three pilot sessions were taped as well. These tapes were found to be extremely difficult to transcribe because of simultaneous interaction of several small groups. Twenty-nine pages were transcribed from one pilot session. The tapes from the other sessions were impossible to transcribe. Since these tapes were so difficult to use, and the interactions during piloting were not especially pertinent to the research, no other tapes were made of pilot sessions.

Notes were made during meetings only when it seemed necessary to record relevant meanings that would not appear in the actual words on tape; i.e., if a decision constituted a significant change in direction.

Some casual conversations (informal interviews?) between the researcher and one or more of the other developers, which took place outside of meetings, were recorded as soon after they occurred as possible.

By the end of the fifteen month period in which the development committee was most active, an extensive collection of documents had been amassed as well. This collection consisted of proposal drafts, modules and lesson plans in their various drafts, correspondence, contracts, completed Feedback Forms from piloting sessions, summaries of results of piloting sessions, and copies of various external documents that were pertinent to the development process or implementation of the in-service program (News Releases from Alberta Education, the report of the Tripartite Committee, articles in Alberta Report, the Edmonton Journal, and The Representative, etc.).

Two separate filing systems were kept, with Mentor modules filed in both systems. The first system was a month-by-month record with documents kept in the file for the month in which they were obtained or developed. The second system involved a separate file for the successive drafts of each module. Four or five revisions of each was common, with one module going through ten revisions before being sent to ACCESS.

Data Analysis and Findings

> The heart of an analysis . . . . involves the
> researcher's application of a small number of
> well-selected concepts to show his or her reader
> the dimensions of social life reflected in the
> data. If successful, an analysis will cause
> us to see relations between pieces of data that
> might at first seem wholly discreet. In addition,
> the discovered elements of social life uncovered
> through an analysis of the collected data may
> challenge, specify, or confirm some already
> existing theoretical view of social life.
> (Williamson et al., 1977, p. 213)

Boag (1980) identified fourteen propositions which outlined the two teachers' perceptions of curricular change proposals. These propositions represented a number of constructs which established an interpretive framework and judgment criteria for their decision-making. The orientation of the change proposal was not matched by the perspectives of the teachers. Therefore, the message of the proposal was changed to suit the teachers' perceptions of their classroom situation, rather than used as intended.

Field (1980) found that each of the four nurses had a perspective of nursing which she used as a model to guide her practice. Each nurse's own life experience determined the shape of her model and these models were relatively resistant to change. Stages of data analysis were as follows: listing incidents, generating tentative propositions, confirming or disproving propositions, developing categories, and model building (p. 68).

McLeod (1976), in his participant observation study of collective bargaining between the Alberta Teachers' Association and local school boards, used Erving Goffman's dramaturgic analogy and its game derivative to describe and analyze the data. Collective bargaining was categorized into backstage and frontstage performance. Backstage interaction involved the provincial government, the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta School Trustees' Association. Frontstage performance was

associated with local and regional collective bargaining.
The public becomes the audience. Involvement in frontstage
performance by school trustees, school board administrators,
and consultants was analyzed using the ideal-type
construct. Factors were categorized according to stage,
backdrop, and potential props. One aspect of the game
model derivative--exploitation--was used to analyze
lobbying with provincial authorities.

Analysis of data in this study was broken down into
four steps, loosely based on the conceptual framework of
Decker Walker's "naturalistic model."

The first step involved analysis of the platform
of the development committee.

> The word "platform" is meant to suggest both
> a political platform and something to stand on.
> The platform includes an idea of what is and
> a vision of what ought to be, and these guide
> the curriculum developer in determining what
> he should do to realize his vision. (Walker,
> 1971, p. 52).

The first Mentor Proposal, was considered to be
the most suitable place to look for a statement of
the platform. The subsequent drafts of the Proposal,
including Draft #3, which was the "official version,"
had been revised on the basis of feedback from members
of the ad hoc committee. Consequently, they would not
provide a true picture of the platform of the developers.

Statements from Draft #1 of the Proposal were placed
into the following categories: View of Social Studies,

View of Teacher, View of Children, View of In-Service,
View of Resources, and View of Evaluation.

Walker's (1975) categories were Art, Art Education,
Teachers, Children, Curriculum, Materials and Activities,
and Evaluation.

Walker was analyzing the platform of a group developing
an art curriculum. He broke the art aspects of his
analysis down into Art and Art education. Since very
few statements concerning social studies or social
studies education were found in the Mentor Proposal, both
of these categories were included in View of Social Studies.

Curriculum was changed to View of In-Service since
it was an in-service program which was being developed.

The kinds of statements which would be found under
Walker's heading, Materials and Activities, would belong,
in this system of categorization, under either View of
Resources or View of In-Service. Resources was considered
to be a more appropriate heading than Materials because
it is wider in scope, including such factors as "time."
Any statements concerning activities in the Mentor
Proposal were concerned with in-service activities and
were categorized under View of In-Service. Therefore,
Activities was eliminated entirely as a heading.

Step Two of the analysis involved constructing a
description of the type of in-service program one might
expect based on the statements drawn from Draft #1 of the
Proposal.

Step Three was an analysis of deliberation. Schwab describes deliberation as follows:

> treats both ends and means and must treat them
> as mutually determining one another. It must
> try to identify, with respect to both, what
> facts may be relevant. It must try to ascertain
> the relevant facts in the concrete case. It must
> try to identify the desiderata in the case. It
> must generate alternative solutions. It must
> take every effort to trace the branching pathways
> of consequences which may flow from each alternative
> and affect desiderata. It must then weigh
> alternatives and their costs and consequences
> against one another, and choose, not the right
> alternative, for there is no such thing but the best
> one. (1969, pp. 20-21)

The intent of the application of analysis to the deliberation differs somewhat in this research from that of Walker. Walker intensively analyzed several consecutive hours of meetings. This thesis was concerned rather with analysis of the meetings over a period of a year (April, 1980 - March, 1981). The longterm nature of the project was the focus, rather than intensive analysis of one or more segments.

Walker identified four types of "deliberative episodes." He defines a "deliberative episode" as "a consecutive portion of transcript having a degree of unity and coherence and being separable from the surrounding discourse by subject and style of discussion" (1975, p. 112).

Issues involved "argumentation concerning what course of action the project or some part of it should undertake or follow" (1975, p. 112). Explications were "little lectures by one or more knowledgeable member of the Project

explaining some situations to his colleagues" (1975, p. 112). Reports involved "recounting of the activities of some member or subgroup for the information and enlightenment of the others" (1975, p. 112), and brainstorms were episodes involving "rapid fire generation of suggestions for solving some problem or coping with some situation" (1975, p. 112).

There was a second phase of analysis applied to the discourse. This analysis was applied to discourse which was essential to the decision-making process, and yet, could not be categorized according to Walker's deliberative episodes.

This discourse was categorized into these episodes: organization, which was an episode devoted to keeping the development running smoothly; presentation, which involved the sharing, by an individual or subgroup of work completed; update, which involved a reminder, by one or more members, to the others, of what had been accomplished to date, and sometimes a listing of what had yet to be done; and invention, the actual production of materials.

According to Walker, "the heart of the deliberative process is the justification of choices" (1971, p. 55). He delineates two sources of justification for decisions that are made. One is circumstances. He says, "to be constrained by circumstances is the curriculum designer's

strongest possible justification, for then he has no genuine choice" (1971, p. 55). If decisions cannot be justified by circumstances, then reference is made to principles which are "expressions of a shared view of the way life can and should be" (1971, p. 55). Choices are justified on the ground that anyone who held those principles would make the same decisions.

It was noted, in reading the transcripts, that circumstances seemed to be a frequent justification for decisions. More than one sort of appeal to circumstances was evident. Furthermore, these appeals to circumstances seemed to have a social role. They seemed to be a uniting factor within the development committee.

A third phase of analysis was therefore added to the deliberation portion of the model. This third phase of analysis involved the application of Berger's concept of "plausibility structures" to the data.

Werner (1977) has provided a delineation of these plausibility structures and discussed them in relation to their application to social studies programs. The three plausibility structures chosen as suitable to be applied to the transcripts of the development committee meetings were legitimations[8], appeals to significant others, and nihilism.

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[8] Werner (1977) used the term "legitimization" and Berger (1969), the term "legitimation" for the same plausibility structure. Berger's term will be used here.

Legitimations are explanations "designed to convince people that what they are being told to do is not only the prudent thing, but also the only right and salutary one" (Berger, 1969, p. 44).

In this case, the legitimations were not built into a social studies program, but were used by the developers to "legitimize" their decisions.

The plausibility structure, appeals to significant others, involves the use of experts "to lend support and authority to the position taken by program developers" (Werner, 1977, p. 106). Significant others mentioned by Werner are "those official reality definers such as pilot teachers, educational psychologists, disciplinarians, authors of best selling books, and politicians" (1971, p. 106).

Nihilism involves the negation of other interpretations of reality. "Methods of nihilism whereby alternative reality interpretations are given a negative status and are set apart as deviant are based generally on the assumption that anyone who does not hold to a particular belief is in some way inferior or suspect" (Werner, 1977, p. 115).

Step Four was an analysis of the Design of the program. This involved two substeps.

Walker distinguishes between implicit and explicit design. The implicit design is made up of "unconsidered choices" (1971, p. 54), those courses of action which

are adopted automatically without consideration of alternatives. Those decisions that are made after consideration of alternatives constitute the program's explicit design.

The first substep, then, involved breaking down the Mentor program into the major implicit and explicit decisions represented within it.

The second substep involved an analysis of the design, using the same categories applied to the platform. This step is not discussed by Walker. The concern of this thesis was to look at changes over time. Therefore, it was necessary to apply the same categories to both the platform and the products of the development committee in order to see what changes did occur over time. This was not necessarily Walker's concern.

Validity and Reliability

According to Bruyn (1966, p. 255) reliability is based upon two assumptions. The first assumption is that other investigators should be able to repeat the study by using the same categories, the same procedures, the same criteria of correctness, and the same perspective as the original researcher. The second assumption is that, by using the above, it is possible for other investigators to perceive the same meanings.

Others reject this as being more appropriate to the quantitative than to the qualitative paradigm (Boag, 1980, pp 59-60). While quantitative studies employ standardized

instruments to which questions of reliability can be appropriately addressed, studies employing participant observation do not prestructure the inquiries with a priori categories. Rather, the "focus is on a valid representation of what is happening, not at the expense of reliable measurement, but without allowing reliability to determine the nature of the data" (Boag, 1980, p. 60).

Honigmann even goes so far as to say:

> The personal approach rests on the premise that under certain circumstances value lies in the very uniqueness and nonrepeatability of a particular investigator's version of reported events or in the conclusions drawn from those events. (1976, p. 244)

The categories used in this study were chosen as applicable in view of the data which had been gathered, rather than having been established in a priori fashion.

This study probably has more reliability than much qualitative research because most of the data were taken from tape recordings of interactions. Transcripts were typed in verbatim fashion from the tapes. Hence, researcher bias or selective perception could not enter into this aspect of data collection, as it inevitably must in the writing of field notes, for instance.

The categories used have been described. It would be possible for another researcher to apply the same categories to the same data. It should also be possible, in applying the same categories, to perceive the same meanings.

The aspect of this study which would be impossible to replicate, as with every participant observation study,

would be the day-to-day interactions and observations of
the participant observer. Even if this particular committee
were to continue in existence, that particular part of its
lifespan is over. It cannot be repeated. Another
researcher, in taking the role of participant observer,
would not have the same experience.

As for validity, Bruyn's six indices of subjective
adequacy are important factors in the making of
interpretations in any participant observation study.
These are:

1. Time: ". . . the more time an individual spends
with a group, the more likely it is
that he will obtain an accurate
interpretation of the social meanings
its members live by."

This observer spent eighteen months as a member of
the Mentor development committee.

2. Place: ". . . the closer the observer works
geographically to the people he studies,
the more accurate should be his
interpretations."

To some extent, the Department of Elementary
Education is a place, in that it is located in various
offices in the Faculty of Education building on the
University of Alberta campus. The social studies
offices are located, in close proximity to one another,
on the second floor of the building.

For the first five months of the project, the
development committee met wherever there was space
available. This included a seminar room, members' offices,
and the staff and grad student lounge (the noise here

making it very difficult to tape).

In June, one member became weary of carrying paper here and there and insisted that we find a room to call "home." Such a room was found on the second floor near the social studies offices. Someone even produced a sign saying "Mentor Associates," which was posted on the door.

This room became our "place" for the following year. Meetings were held here and it was used when pairs or subgroups met to develop materials.

> 3. Social circumstance: ". . . the more varied the status opportunities within which the observer can relate to his subjects, and the more varied the activities he witnesses, the more likely the observer's interpretations will be true."

The observer, as developer, took part in all of the diverse activities involved in that role. These have been listed previously. In addition to activities directly involved with being a developer, there were lunches, discussions over coffee, parties for grad students who had passed their orals, etc.

> 4. Language: ". . . the more familiar the observer is with the language of his subjects, the more accurate should be his interpretations."

The observer was a grad student one year and a sessional lecturer the next in the Department of Elementary Education. All of the members of the development committee were part of this department. Social studies was the specialty of each member. A common "language" was a natural outgrowth

of this commonality of interest. There was a common
language before Mentor ever began. However, common
language grew out of Mentor as well. Such words and
phrases as "module," "inquiry model," "ad hoc ommitttee,"
"classroom demonstrations," "overview," and "criteria"
(and many others) each had a particular meaning to the
Mentor developers.

    5.   Intimacy: ". . . the greater degree of intimacy
               the observer achieves with his subjects,
               the more accurate his interpretations."

Webster's defines intimacy as "closely acquainted
or associated; very familiar."

Whyte has said that participant observation is the
means by which the most intimate view of an organization
can be attained (1969, p. 41).

Due to personality and circumstantial factors, the
observer achieved greater intimacy with some members of
the committee than with others.

However, there were several factors which lead to a
feeling of intimacy on the part of the team as a whole.
One was simply the amount of time spent together. Another
was the feeling of being "put upon" by others. This
attitude of "developers against the world" strengthened
group cohesiveness.

    6.   Consensus: ". . . the more the observer
               confirms the expressive meanings of the
               community, either directly or indirectly,
               the more accurate will be his inter-
               pretations of them" (1966, pp. 181-184)

Again, time was on the observer's side. First
impressions were confirmed or discredited as time went
by and new experiences increased the observer's store
of knowledge. Members of the development committee shared
impressions on a day-to-day basis, so that one could
always check one's own impressions against those of another.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter consists of four sections. The first
will deal with a description of the Mentor Project, its
background, and the phases through which it went from
conception to implementation.

The second section involves a two-step analysis of
Mentor's Platform in terms of "what is" and "what ought
to be."

The third section is devoted to analysis of the
dynamics of decision-making in the Mentor Project.

The fourth section, like the second, involves two
substeps. The first substep involves analysis of the
Design of the program according to the implicit and
explicit decisions inherent within it. The second is
an analysis of the Design according to the same categories
applied previously to the Platform.

Excerpts from taped transcripts of meetings are
used extensively throughout this chapter. Several
measures were taken to promote anonymity. Pseudonyms
have been substituted for the developers' names. When
other individuals are mentioned by name in the transcripts,
pseudonyms are used in these cases as well. Names of
schools and other places have also been changed.

Occasionally, grade levels were changed as a means of disguising particular materials. For instance, a reference to a Grade Six Alberta Education Teaching Unit might be altered to refer to a Grade Four unit.

In many cases, portions of transcripts have been deleted for purposes of brevity. A single line of spaced ellipsis points indicates a portion of transcript consisting of one or more sentences.

( ) is the symbol used to designate a word or words which were indiscernible from the tape.

<div align="center">The Mentor Project</div>

Description of Mentor

The Mentor developers sent the project to ACCESS in March of 1981 to be produced. At this time the program consisted of a Self-Awareness Inventory and fifteen self-contained modules, each accompanied by a Leader's Guide.

The first module, called Overview, was intended as a brief introductory segment to create an awareness of what was available in the entire program, with the purpose of enabling teachers to make informed choices as to the modules most appropriate to their needs. The Self-Awareness Inventory was designed to help teachers to analyze their own teaching styles.

Each of the remainder of the modules was tied directly to the social inquiry model or to the three types of objectives found in the 1981 Social Studies Curriculum Guide. The modules and the corresponding

objectives or segments of the social inquiry model are
as follows:

Mentor Module		Social Inquiry Model or Objectives
Openers	1.	Identify and Focus on the Issue
	2.	Establish Research Questions and Procedures
Historical Documents		
Surveys		
	3.	Gather and Organize Data
Interviews		
Maps		
Organizing and Analyzing Data	3.	Gather and Organize Data
	4.	Analyze and Evaluate Data
Evaluation of Data	4.	Analyze and Evaluate Data
Synthesizing Data	5.	Synthesize Data
Resolving the Issue	6.	Resolve the Issue
Applying the Decision	7.	Apply the Decision
Values Objectives		All steps
Evaluation of Skills		Skill Objectives
Evaluation of Knowledge		Knowledge Objectives
Evaluation of Values		Value Objectives

*In some cases, two skills were grouped together in the
inquiry model. In these cases, the skill pertinent to
the Mentor module has been underlined.

Each of these modules was intended to take about
two and a half to three hours to complete.

Using Evaluation of Data as an example, each
module consisted of the following steps:

Background of Mentor

Mentor originated in a proposal prepared by
Frank Crowther, Associate Director of Curriculum, Social
Studies, on behalf of the Social Studies Curriculum
Coordinating Committee in the spring of 1978. The
proposal was given preliminary approval by the Curriculum
Branch of Alberta Education, after costing out by ACCESS-TV
(F. Crowther, personal correspondence, 1981).

In December of 1979, ACCESS asked Drs. Brad Powell
and Tom Foster of the Department of Elementary Education,
The University of Alberta, to submit a proposal for the
development of the in-service project.

Drs. Powell and Foster, in turn, asked four
graduate students in the area of social studies, to assist
them in the project.

The grad students were of varying backgrounds:

One student was on temporary leave from a position, held for the previous sixteen years, as a professor in the Department of Elementary Education of a university in another province. She was in the first year of a Doctoral program.

A second student had resigned from a position as assistant principal in a rural Alberta community where the bulk of his teaching experience had been at the secondary level. He had worked on a number of curriculum development projects for Alberta Education. He was in the first year of a Doctoral program.

Another student was on leave from a large urban Alberta school jurisdiction, where she had been employed as an elementary teacher for twenty-three years. She was in the first year of a Doctoral program.

The fourth grad student had resigned from a school district in a neighbouring province, where she had been employed as an elementary teacher for six years. She was in the first year of a Master's program when Mentor began.

When asked on one occasion why they had chosen to become involved in the project, Dr. Powell replied:

> It's wrapped up in why we take on certain projects and don't take on others, and our first obligation, of course, is to our students, and for graduate students that ideally means being involved in a

project like this, where we're taking a problem
and it dovetails with the kind of research, the
kind of things that they're studying and it makes
sort of a practical application of some of the
theoretical stances. It's a good, a good project
for staff members and students to be involved in.
And so that's a major concern and so we reject
some projects and take on others. This seemed
ideal. We have an obligation to the schools in
Alberta and we try to fulfill that in a number of
ways: teaching the Alberta program in undergraduate
method courses, helping out at the Department of
Education on committees, trying to be, quote
"good citizens" of the academic community. And so
it's that kind of a context. We look at students,
we look at what's happened to their assistantships.
We've been under the same kind of constraints as
every other government department. They're getting
minimal kinds of endorsement from the Department
financially, so if there are projects we can get
into where they can work and we can in some way
repay them for it, those are the kinds of projects
we look for. And I think that's true across the
University, whether it's our Department or the
Department of Geography. Wherever you go, that's
the way they operate. So that's the context that
we took the project on . . .

. . . .

For instance, we wanted not only financial help for
them, but we wanted some academic pieces for them.
And we hoped that, well, there's a paper for one
of the courses. Two of them worked on a paper in
terms of their curriculum evaluation course that drew
on the literature. We have another one looking at
the process of program development, how the initial
ideas change as they work through various groups of
people and, hopefully, being able to compare those
initial ideas with the final product and what
influenced it. (May 22, 1980)

Another dimension as to why people take on projects

such as this was provided by a second developer:

Ted - Working on these team projects, you
get to know one another better, you get involved.
I really enjoyed working on Downey. Hell, there
were lots of ups and downs on that. But it was
a good sort of an experience, to work with all

these different people. Working on the Hobbema
Curriculum Project, I think I got a lot out of
it. It took a lot of time. I was hoping Mentor
was going to be the same thing. But the problem,
really the problem is that with Downey, it was
a lot, you know, the time span was a lot shorter.
(Feb. 11, 1981)

Phases

Introduction

Figure 1 provides a schematic view of the major
phases of the project and the stakeholders involved. It
can be seen that the first four phases were anything but
clearcut. Rather, one phase gradually merged into the
next, with a great deal of overlap.

Development of modules began in February of 1980,
before negotiation over the Proposal was complete. The
development phase was the most lengthy, with the first
and last draft of one module (Evaluating Values) not
being developed until March of 1981.

Piloting and revision of some modules and
development of others were being done simultaneously
much of the time. Piloting began in May of 1980 and
carried on, intermittently, until February of 1981.
Revisions began in May of 1980, when the second version
of the Openers module was drafted. Although the
modules were sent to ACCESS in March of 1981, revisions
to the Appendices continued until June.

Production began in March of 1981 and was
completed by August of the same year. There is a clear
break between production and implementation. Implementation
began in September of 1981, when the in-service modules

SHAREHOLDERS	PHASE ONE Negotiation	PHASE TWO Development	PHASE THREE Pilotting	PHASE FOUR Revision	PHASE FIVE Production	PHASE SIX Implementation
ACCESS						
AD HOC COMMITTEE						
DEVELOPERS						
TEACHERS						
ALBERTA EDUCATION						

Jan./80 - Feb./80

Feb./80 - Mar./81 (14 modules)

May/80 Aug./80
Aug./80 Sept./80
Sept./80 Feb./81
Feb./81

May/80 - June/81

Mar./81 - Aug./81

Sept./81 - ?

May/81 - June/81 (Appendices)

— — — Partial Involvement

——— Influential, but not directly involved

▬▬▬ Directly involved

Figure 1
STAKEHOLDERS IN THE PROJECT

were first used as training materials for the 125 resource
teachers. They were then to be used by these resource
teachers during the 1981/82 school year. No final date
was put under the Implementation phase because,
presumably, the in-service program will continue to be
used as long as the 1981 curriculum is in effect.

It can be seen in Figure 1 that while Alberta Education
was the stakeholder with the most lengthy involvement in
a periphery role, the developers were directly involved
for the longest period.

Negotiation

The first meeting of the Mentor developers was held
over lunch at the Power Plant, a graduate student
restuarant and lounge on campus, on Friday, January 18,
1980. Drs. Powell and Foster outlined the intents of
the project to the students at this time. It was
suggested that the program might be oriented around
different approaches to organizing a social studies
classroom; i.e., learning centres, group investigation,
contracts, and a teacher-presenter approach. It was
agreed that everyone would try to come up with some
ideas over the weekend and that the group would meet
again on the following Monday.

Working together, the Mentor developers produced
a proposal, which was submitted to members of the Social
Studies In-Service Program Ad Hoc Committee early in
February.

The ad hoc committee was appointed by Alberta Education to ensure "that a respectable set of procedures is followed in designing, developing, testing and revising the Mentor materials" (F. Crowther, 1981, personal correspondence).
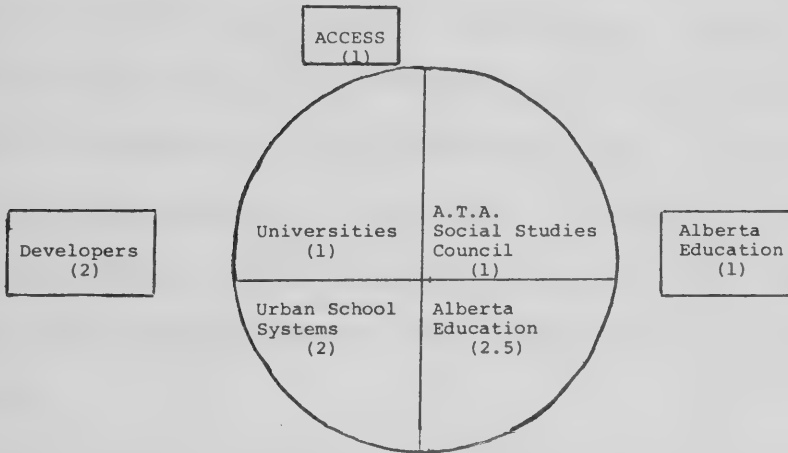
Figure 2   Social Studies In-Service Program Ad Hoc Committee

This committee was comprised of a University of Calgary professor, a consultant from each of the Edmonton and Calgary public school systems, a member of the Alberta Teachers' Association Social Studies Council, and representatives from Alberta Education. The Alberta Education representatives included two regional consultants and the Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies. However, it was not quite this straightforward. One of the regional consultants attended only until January of 1981. From January to June of 1980, the Acting Associate Director attended the meetings in the place of the

Associate Director, who attended from September of 1980 until the completion of the project.

Others attended the ad hoc committee meetings as well. One of these was a Learning Resources Officer from Alberta Education whose role seemed to be to tape-record the meetings, to write up Minutes, and to act as a liaison between the developers, ACCESS, and Alberta Education. Also attending the meetings were the Project Coordinator from ACCESS and two of the developers.

The developers' Proposal was divided into two sections, the first dealing with the rationale for the in-service program, the second, outlining the actual program.

Negotiation was directed at the second part of the Proposal. It would seem that the ad hoc committee was either in agreement with the rationale or rhetoric of the developers, or did not consider it important enough to waste time in discussing it. While the second section of the Proposal went through two more drafts, the first section did not change.

In part two of the Proposal the developers described the format of the in-service program as they envisioned it. They visualized the program as being organized around four methods of having students interact with materials. These were contracts, learning centres, group investigation, and teacher-presenter.

Direction from the ad hoc committee was that these were not the most effective means of organizing the in-service program. Teacher as director, teacher as facilitator, and teacher as resource person was suggested as an alternate format.

An alternate approach was then designed by the developers around these three teaching modes. This approach consisted of teacher-director, implying that the teacher is responsible for most classroom decisions; teacher-student shared decision-making; and increased student decision-making.

This approach was approved and the developers then put together Draft Three of their Proposal, the official accepted version.

<div align="center">Development</div>

Development began in February of 1980, while the development committee was still negotiating the third draft of the Proposal.

Input to the developers, through this phase and all of the following phases of their direct involvement, was generally as depicted in Figure 3.
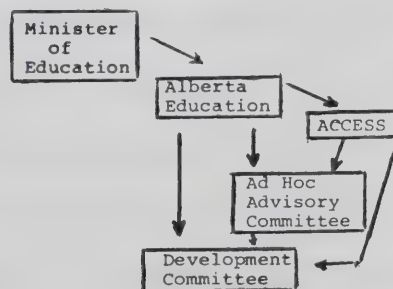
Figure 3   Input to the Development Committee

The Minister of Education, through, in particular, his announcement that the curriculum was to be implemented in September of 1981, and his decision to approve the hiring of 125 resource teachers during the 1981/82 school year, certainly had an effect on the project.

Alberta Education influenced the course of the project through its representation on the ad hoc committee. The Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies also communicated directly with the developers by means of letters, phone conversations, and face-to-face discussions.

The two professors acted as a liaison between the other developers and the ad hoc committee. They presented development committee products at the ad hoc committee meetings and then returned with feedback and directions for changes. Individual members of the ad hoc committee also communicated to the developers through phone conversations and letters.

The Project Coordinator from ACCESS attended ad hoc committee meetings, attended development committee meetings from time to time, and communicated directly with individual developers.

Meetings of the developers, through this and subsequent phases of their direct involvement, were characterized by a great deal of coming and going, as people took care of other commitments. When keeping up became impossible, a Sunday meeting would be scheduled.

When asked to give a brief description of how tasks were broken down, one of the developers gave the following account:

> Tom - From the beginning we functioned together as a group of six people who each contribute to the general planning of the whole and as we go along, we plan parts, operate as a whole group, and take pieces out to be completely developed by individuals; and so everybody has played a role in the overall planning and specific development as we've gone on. And we've tried out rough drafts back to the whole group and gone through them together, tried out the activities within our group, and made revisions. It's been I guess, a team who has worked together as a unit on the task, rather than there being superordinate and subordinate roles. The only difference, I guess, has been Brad and I represented the team to the advisory committee.
>
> Brad - And bear ultimate responsibility.
>
> . . . .
>
> Brad - The model has been one where you'll have students telling us what to do and which pieces we're to complete, probably more often than us telling them. I'll get that on the table.
>
> <div align="right">(May 22, 1980)</div>

Members met as a group when individuals or subgroups had something to share. From the beginning, most of the meetings were devoted to establishing format, allocating tasks, and sharing what had been developed. The actual development occurred at other times.

Pilotting

The pilotting phase began in May of 1980, and continued, intermittently, until the spring of 1981.

Modules were pilotted in a variety of settings and circumstances, ranging from university undergraduate

classes in social studies curriculum and instruction, to school staffs, to workshop groups from various schools, meeting in a central location. Pilotting was carried out not only by the developers, but by some members of the ad hoc committee, and by individuals who were not involved in Mentor in any other capacity.

From the beginning, there was a strong commitment on the part of the developers, to pilotting.

Tom - Susan and I went over to a meeting with
Alice Duncan, public school, and pilotted
one of the modules with a group of teachers.
As I understand it, there is nothing planned
into either your time or your financial
arrangement for that kind of pilotting to be
done systematically with all of the modules
because

Bill - There was.

Tom - out of that experience in doing that with
a group of teachers came a very strong conviction
that that has got to be planned for and has
got to become somehow, if we're going to go
ahead with this thing, has got to become a
systematic ( )

Bill - It was part of the original plan.

Tom - You learn too much from it.

. . . .

Tom - That's why I brought it up because, I
don't know what your view is on it, but I think
not to go with a carefully developed plan for
pilotting of every one of those modules

Bill - Yes.

Tom - is not good planning at all.

. . . .

Tom - I encourage there being some small group
of people to sit down and go through that plan
and see if they can't be creative enough to find
some ways that they can incorporate into it
some opportunities for piloting.

. . . .

Tom - You're also on a level of trying to make
some good judgement about effectiveness and I
guess I came away from that session with teachers
yesterday feeling that the good basis for that
committee to make decisions about go or no go is
not on their sitting down and reading it.

Bill - Lord, no!

Tom - But rather them getting some feedback. What
happens when you run some teachers through this
thing?

(May 22, 1980)

A summary of the feedback from piloting with thirty

teachers, carried out in Calgary, Edmonton, and the

Peace block in February of 1981, is as follows:

I.   FEEDBACK ON MODULES

Among commonly cited suggestions from pilot
teachers were the following:

A.   Changes desired/improvements needed

- Time: more needed; too long, control pacing
- Directions not clear
- Group by grade level
- Use pre-attendance preparation
- Varied sequence of steps more effective
- Provide more concrete examples
- Present ideas to us, don't ask us to
  generate
- Example needed to start step 6
- Resent being treated like little kids
- Disjointed
- Need more content: what and how to do
- Purpose of inservice unclear
- Demonstrations don't illustrate both shared
  and directed
- Need demo at higher level

- Reading of handouts is not a sufficient
  demo; step 4 tough as a result
- Teachers need access to KK and TU
- Time of day (3:30) poor for serious
  involvement
- More discussion/explanation would
  generate interest
- Standard format repetitions (sic) (had
  done 3)

B. Strengths

- Discussion, sharing - Steps 5-6-7
- Module design
- Step 4 made me reflect on how I teach
- Appendix examples
- Criteria helpful (Step 2)
- Like specific ideas they can go back and use
- Like leader directed - more organized
  (Apply Decision)
- Example to start Step 6 helpful (Apply
  Decision)
- Ideas could be carried out in our
  classroom (Undated)

One major problem with every pilot was the lack of

a complete set of materials. This lack was most apparent

in Step Three, which was to involve two classroom

demonstrations, one of a teacher using a teacher-directed

approach with students and the other depicting teacher-student

shared decision-making. Step Four involved the use of

a continuum to analyze and compare the two demonstrations.

It was very difficult for teachers to do this, not having

seen the demonstrations. Usually, print materials

intended to describe the demonstrations, were provided.

This was a woefully inadequate substitute since, first,

teachers were often somewhat resentful of being given

additional materials to read, and secondly, they simply

lacked the power and immediacy that a good visual

representation would have.

As the developers expressed it,

Brad - Well, I guess, you know, I still have the
same concern. We designed those seven or eight
steps, whatever we ended up with, with a variety
of, uh, techniques in mind - that they would be
involved, see some pieces, and we'd work on some
pieces, and they'd share with others. And I
don't think we've ever really tested that model
out.

. . . .

Ted - The difficulty I have with the pilot - it's
like, if you can imagine Toyota demonstrating their
cars, or field-testing, without the motor. That
might not be fair, but I think so. It seems to
me that Step Three is such a crucial component.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

However, use of demonstrations was not an automatic

panacea.

For the fourth of a series of six pilot sessions in

one school, two of the developers had gone into a

classroom and made a videotape. One developer taught a

lesson involving resolution of an issue and the other

filmed it.

While the technical quality of the videotape was

somewhat lacking (the dialogue being punctuated with a

sound akin to a nail scraping a blackboard, magnified

ten times), it had been received enthusiastically by both

the ad hoc committee and members of undergraduate

curriculum and instruction classes to whom it had been

shown.

Under other pilotting circumstances this module might

have been received more favourably. However, three of

the five participants at this particular session had

decided among themselves, on the basis of the three
pilots which they had already experienced (or endured),
that they were going to work through the module at a
furious pace, and be finished by 4:30. (Starting time
was 3:30 and previous sessions had finished at 5:00).
One of the participants shared this information following
the session. It is interesting to note that her object
was not to get away from school by 4:30, but simply to
be finished the piloting by then. She stayed, talking
to the developers, until 5:30.

Susan - Did Ted tell you what happened when we
showed the videotape?

Tom - They bitched about it, I guess.

Susan - Yeah.

Tom - Chewed it up and spat it out in one piece.

Susan - Yeah, you know I really thought that would
make all the difference to Resolving the Issue,
because we finally had one video component.

Tom - See, that's . . .

Susan - And they focussed on the teaching.

. . . .

Susan - But it really bombed, didn't it? In fact,
they were so bored

Ted - You turned it off.

Susan - that I turned it off. I didn't take it,
show it for the whole eight minutes or something.
And I finally got to the point where I really had
to get up and turn it off because I could just tell
they were just biding time till it was over.

Ted - Well, we were holding up that group, you see.

Susan - . . . we didn't know that at the time. That's what it was. They wanted to get on with it.

Ted - (   )

Susan - and we were holding them up for the ten minutes.

Ted - We were holding them up.

Betty - They had their agenda and you guys were interfering with it.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

Another complaint which teachers had regarding the modules concerned their dullness.

Tom - And one of the things that somebody commented on was that they had attended a Science workshop where the guy had started it by coming in, taking his shoes off, and walking on glowing coals. Later on he had stuck his bare hand into some molten lead. "Now," she said, "in comparison, (Laughter) this was rather weak tea." Okay, well, I'm not suggesting that we build into the Step One, the workship leader goes in walking on glowing coals, but I am suggesting, the response of teachers to this was that they would like to see it presented in a little more pizazzy kind of a way.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

Ted - And if I walked on coals I'd burn my feet and they'd say, "There you are. Bloody social studies educators, they burn their feet. Science guys can do it. They've got a better deal."

Ted - I'll wear a suit tomorrow. Come with a bandage on. "I tried putting my hand on hot coals, but it didn't work. " (Laughter)

Betty -And come limping in.   (Laughter)

Ted - I'll get you to paint a black mark across my hand for the poker.

Susan - Maybe this won't be so bad after all.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

A third problem was that some teachers viewed their input as ultimately futile.

> Susan - . . . they felt that the pilotting is futile because they say that, okay, "Alberta Education, ACCESS, and so on have invested a certain amount of money in this so far and so much time has been invested in it, we're not going to change the basic format. We might change a few cosmetic things." And she's probably right. The basic format is going to go ahead. So she said, "What's the point?"

> (Feb. 15, 1981)

Revision

"It is a bad plan that admits of no modification" (Publilius Syrus, First Century, B.C.).

> Ted - This, it seems to have become like Topsy. It keeps growing and growing and growing and it doesn't look like any end's in sight. I wouldn't mind if Topsy ended up looking like Brooke Shields, but she's beginning to look like a monster.

> (Feb. 11, 1981)

Revisions were based on the results of pilotting and on directions from the ad hoc advisory committee. One module, Openers, went through ten drafts before being sent to ACCESS for production. (The revisions made to the Openers module are outlined in Figure 4.)

The following quotes are indicative of the discouragement experienced by the developers along the way to Draft Number Ten.

> Tom - It's gonna be like, uh, the SSC '78. This is Draft Four.

> Brad - I think you should get her to put the numbers from one to fifty on that.

> (Aug. 11, 1980)

Tom - We've tried to clean that beast up so many times. I don't think it's ever going to come clean. Our bleach isn't strong enough, or something.

Betty - Tighten it up. Spruce it up.

Tom - Okay, that's Draft Four. It isn't that we haven't taken a run at the thing.

(Aug. 26, 1980)

Brad - What draft is this by the way?

Ted - Five.

Betty - Five. "Openers Revisited."

Tom - It has a familiar ring about it, doesn't it? This reminds me of the '78 Curriculum.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

This excerpt is illustrative of the revision process. It is indicative of the tedious nature of the task. This session was repeated many times over as various drafts of each module were developed.

Betty - The first thing is, does everybody have a copy of the Draft Three of the Opener module?

Ted - I don't have one.

. . . .

Ted - That first one looks terrible.

Susan - The language is bad.

Ted - "The participants will take part in experiencing a sample of the strategy under study in the module."

Betty - That's what I wanted to ask. Are we happy with this procedure to be a standard one for all modules or should we revamp that first of all?

Tom - I think we should have the first one say, "Teachers will experience . . ."

. . . .

Betty - Okay. Number five - "Participants will be encouraged to share" - uh, "Teachers will share experiences."

Tom - "Share their Openers."

Susan - "With Openers."

Tom - How about - "Teachers will share their Openers"?

Brad - "Teachers will share their ideas about Openers."

Betty - What did you say?

Ted - "Teachers will share . . ."

Betty - "Teachers will share . . ."

Susan - "Ideas about Openers."

Betty - "Ideas about Openers."

Ted - And then I think you can say, "Working in groups, where possible, teachers will develop an Opener for a unit of interest to them." It can almost stay the same, I think.

Betty - What did you change? The word, "working"? Or just . . . ?

Tom - "Participants."

Ted - "Participants" to "teachers."

Betty - Hm?

Susan - "Teachers."

Ted - "Teachers."

Betty - Oh, just that so it becomes, "Teacher"? Okay, just give me time to write that because I'll forget if I don't.

Ted - I hope that next time you'll take a course in speedwriting, uh, Betty.

Betty - I will. I'll try.

Ted - Otherwise, we're going to have to get rid of you.

Betty - I'll write on your eyeballs with my pencil if you don't shut up.

Ted - "Teachers will share . . ."

Betty - "Teachers . . ."

Ted - "Teachers will share . . ."

Susan - "Their Openers"?

Ted - "Their Openers with others"?

Brad - "Teachers will share their ideas for Openers."

Susan - I find that confusing, though, because isn't it at that point they're supposed to share the Openers that they developed in Part Six? And I think it's easily confused with Number Five when they say their ideas for Openers. They're not sure if it's their Opener they developed or if we're just repeating Five.

Betty - Well, what did we mean by Seven?

Susan - We meant that they were going to share the Openers that they developed.

<p align="right">(Aug. 27, 1980)</p>

While Openers was revised the greatest number of times, every module was revised more than once. This became a very tedious procedure. There seemed to be no definite end in sight. We often experienced a feeling of hopelessness, because it seemed that the more changes we took to the ad hoc advisory committee, the more additional changes they would suggest.

One of the developers, on a day of particular despair, likened us to Sisyphus, with his boulder, eternally toiling upward, only to begin again at the bottom.

Production

While the focus of this thesis is to describe the creation of the Mentor Project up until the time it went to ACCESS to be produced, it seems worthwhile to briefly describe the Production phase.

Figure 4 Revisions to Openers Module

Draft	Date	Format	Content
1	Mar./80 (Prototype)	- Two modules, one for Teacher presenter mode and one for Teacher/Student decision makers - Part 1 - VTR - a. Intro. - Description of Openers b. Exemplary episodes Part 2 - Discussion of episodes Part 3 - Developing an Opener Part 4 - Sharing Session	- Sketchy content - Concept of Openers involves first step of Social Inquiry Model - Identify and Focus on the Issue
2	May/80	- Change from two modules to one with both approaches incorporated - Parts 1 & 2 a. to experience an Opener b. to identify the drawbacks of that Opener c. to identify the strengths of that Opener d. to identify characteristics of an effective Opener Parts 3 & 4 e. to identify the teacher's role in two Openers Part 5 f. to generate a pool of Openers by sharing ideas Part 6 g. to develop an Opener for a unit Part 7 h. to expand the pool of Openers	- Much greater detail
3	July/80	- Same format	- Concept of Openers expanded to include second step of Social Inquiry Model - Establish Research Questions and Procedures

4	Aug./80	– This module developed specifically for one pilot session, then abandoned. Format the same except for removal of Opener in a., with the two Openers in e. taking its place	– Participants no longer asked to generate their own criteria for evaluating an Opener
5	Aug., Sept./80	– Very brief section – Directions to Leader – added – (1) Teachers will experience an Opener (2) Teachers will consider the characteristics of an Opener (3) Openers in two classrooms will be shown (4) The two demonstrations will be analyzed (5) Teachers will share ideas about Openers (6) Working in groups of two or three, teachers will develop an Opener for a unit of interest to them (7) Openers developed will be shared with other teachers	– Sample Opener in Part 1 changed – Some questions changed – Suggested times for each section added
6	Sept./80	– Inquiry Model in different location	
7	Nov./80		– Statement of necessary equipment – A few wording changes
8	Dec./80		– Wording changes
9	Dec./80		– A characteristic added to list of characteristics of Openers – Sentence added in Appendix A – Note that a second Appendix will be included – One characteric eliminated – A statement altered in Appendix A

10   Mar./81   — No longer self-contained Participant's   — Sample Opener in
                   Manual but ten handouts for participants   Part 1 changed
                   accompanied by a Leader's Manual with
                   an explanation for each handout
                 — A second Appendix added, this one
                   containing examples from sources other
                   than the Teaching Units and Kanata
                   Kits

                 — PART 1   A PROCESS OF SOCIAL INQUIRY
                 — PART 2   EXPERIENCING AN OPENER
                 — PART 3   CHARACTERISTICS OF OPENERS
                 — PART 4   ANALYZING THE DEMONSTRATIONS
                 — PART 5   SHARING IDEAS ABOUT OPENERS
                 — PART 6   DEVELOPING AN OPENER
                 — PART 7   SHARING IDEAS
                 — PART 8   EXAMPLES OF OPENERS FROM
                              KANATA KITS AND TEACHING UNITS
                 — PART 9   EXAMPLES OF OPENERS FROM
                              OTHER SOURCES
                 — PART 10   MODULE EVALUATION FORM

According to the contract between ACCESS and the developers, the developers' role with regard to production was to consist of the following:

> Consult with ACCESS production staff during the production phase of the project as required by the Project Coordinator. Such consultation to include but not limited to:
>
> a) script writer (s)
> b) designer (s)/editor (s)
> c) producer (s)

(June 24, 1980)

In actuality, the developers' role was confined to the first task. Most of the classroom demonstrations that were videotaped were based on lesson plans written by the developers.

The Mentor Project, at the end of the Production phase, appeared in a large brown binder with several videotapes. The binder consists of the written portion of an Overview module, a Self-Awareness package, and thirteen self-contained modules (Surveys and Interviews having been combined into one). Overview, Openers, Historical Data Sources, Evaluation of Data, Synthesizing Data, Resolving the Issue, and Values and Valuing have a videotape portion. The other modules are based on print materials only. The videotapes accompanying these modules consist of elementary and secondary demonstrations of a teacher and students applying the inquiry skill(s) pertinent to the module; i.e., in Openers they would be identifying and focussing on the issue and establishing research questions.

The format of the modules remained as described on page 4 of this chapter, except for two changes. Part 7, which had involved sharing of the ideas or activities developed in Part 6, was removed, as was Part 9, which was a collection of examples of the inquiry skills used in sources other than the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units.

Implementation

Originally, implementation plans for Mentor had much the same scope as the implementation of the Phase I in-service program. Copies of that program had simply been made available to Alberta Education Regional Consultants, school district consultants, and supervisors to be used as they found suitable opportunities.

However, the Minister of Education's announcement in the Legislature in May of 1981, that 2.2 million dollars would be put into in-service during the 1981/82 school year, changed all of that. This funding came, not from Alberta Education, but from general provincial funds, as a result of a cabinet order (Alberta Report, May 15, 1981). It was intended to be used to provide in-service for every social studies teacher in the province.

The decision was made by Alberta Education that the Mentor program, which was already in development, was to be used, first as training material for the 125 teachers from around the province who had been hired to lead the in-service sessions, and secondly, as the in-service program itself.

This event is momentous. Mentor and the social studies curriculum [9] are going to be in the spotlight of publicity for the 1981/82 school year. Because such a huge financial commitment had been made to the program, and because in-service on this scale has, apparently, not been tried anywhere before (Alberta Report, May 15, 1981), it is evident that it will receive a great deal of attention.

> Following his announcement of the in-service programme, Education Minister David King observed that the ATA had been "arguing long and hard" that such training would make a big difference in the quality of teaching. "So we're going to see," he concluded.

The developers, in their role as developers of the Mentor program, will take little active part in the Implementation Phase. However, at least two of the developers will be actively involved in other ways.

One is a member of the steering committee, composed of representatives from Alberta Education, the Alberta School Trustees' Association, the Alberta Teachers' Association, and the universities. This committee was put together for the purpose of watching over the Implementation Phase. Being a professor in elementary education and a school trustee, it is as likely that he was chosen for one or both of these two roles as it is that he was chosen as a Mentor developer.

Another developer, as a half-time social studies consultant with a large urban public school system, is to be involved in using the Mentor materials as an in-service leader.

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[9] See Alberta Report - March 6, 1981, June 26, 1981 July 31, 1981

Conclusion

It can be seen that the Mentor Project went through quite a metamorphosis over the course of its creation.

While it was at first oriented around four means of organizing a social studies classroom, it became tied more and more closely to the 1981 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, with its modules, in the end, tied specifically to the steps of the inquiry model and the three types of objectives in the curriculum. It was perhaps thought that tieing the in-service program directly to the curriculum would increase teachers' awareness of the curriculum itself.

One force at work to achieve this end was historical. The failure of the 1971 curriculum to be implemented in many Alberta classrooms was still very much in people's minds. The ad hoc committee and several of the developers had been around to see that failure. One can assume that they didn't want to see history repeated.

It could be said too that many of the individuals on the ad hoc committee had, to some degree, a stake in the implementation of the curriculum because of involvement in writing it or of materials to accompany it.

It is interesting to note that there was only one practising teacher between the developers and the ad hoc committee. This is in conflict with the guidelines set out by current research on in-service, which strongly points to teachers being involved in planning in-service

experiences intended for them.

However, teachers did have a say in the program through their role in the pilotting of the modules. Feedback from pilot sessions was taken very seriously and much revision work was done as a result of what teachers had to say.

The feedback summary makes evident the difficulty of pilotting without the visual demonstrations of classrooms in action. This point will be brought out in more depth in the analysis of decision-making in the following sections of this chapter.

While the revisions did seem to be a burden to the developers, this is apparently common to such projects. On the Keele Project, Shipman remarked that, "For every page that was finally published there were probably a dozen that finally ended in the waste paper basket" (1974, p. 58).

Part of the reason the revisions seemed so endless was perhaps because the expectations set up by ACCESS as to deadlines were unrealistic. (The Keele Project took six months simply deciding what it was going to do and how it was going to do it.)

This is a listing of timelines in a contract signed by ACCESS on June 13, 1980 and by the developers on June 24, 1980. (These timelines were a more realistic revision of the ones originally established in January of 1980!)

1. Complete development of print   June 29, 1980
2. Complete drafting of print materials   July 15, 1980
3. Complete development for media   July 30, 1980
4. Validate module development   August 15, 1980
5. Complete revisions to module
   development   September 1, 1980
6. Consultation as assigned
   a) in three   December 1, 1980
   b) installments   April 1, 1981
   c) as noted.   September 1, 1981

These dates did not seem to account for extensive pilotting and the possibility of having to do considerable revisions as a result.

As it turned out, the print materials were not completed and sent to ACCESS until the end of March of 1981. Even then, Parts 8 & 9 were incomplete, and were not sent until June.

It was essential that revisions be carried out; yet the developers operated under a burden of guilt because of their inability to meet the timelines set up.

Another point made evident here is the number of stakeholders in the development of an educational program. If one is going to become involved in such an endeavour, then one has to accept the presence of a number of eyes peering over one's shoulder. This kind of work is not for the rugged individualist.

The next section of this chapter will begin the detailed analysis of the development process with a two-step analysis of Mentor's platform.

Analysis of Platform

What Is

According to Walker, "the Platform includes an idea
of what is and a vision of what ought to be" (1971, p. 52).
Implicit in the "idea of what is" in this case, is a view
of teachers, children, evaluation, in-service, resources,
and social studies.

View of Teacher

A particular view of the teacher is evident in the
Proposal document.

First, teachers are viewed as unique individuals with
"varying conceptions of social studies, ideas about how
children learn, beliefs about best ways of teaching and
knowledge of a variety of activities to try" (p. 9). As
individuals, they "vary as learners, starting at different
points, learning at different rates, benefitting differently
from various learning materials and activities and seeking
different learning goals" (p. 10). As well, they come
with individual needs to be met by the in-service program
and strengths which will enable them to contribute to it.

Teachers are viewed as motivated people who wish to
be as autonomous as possible. They are "mature professionals
capable of making some decisions about in-service themselves"
(p. 9). Consequently, they need to be "active determiners
of the in-service experiences in which they are involved"
(p. 12).

Teachers are viewed as people who have many demands
on their time and who have a "practical bent" (p. 11).

They wish to take away concrete materials from in-service
sessions, which can be used immediately in their classrooms.
They like to be shown new ideas in action, rather than
simply be told about them.

Teachers place more credibility in the ideas of other
practising teachers than they do in the ideas of others.
They also value opportunities to interact socially with
other teachers.

View of Children

The focus is on teachers, rather than children.
Therefore, the implicit assumption here seems to be that
since the purpose of the in-service program is to help
teachers to improve their teaching, this will in turn help
children to improve their learning.

The emphasis is on particular children rather than
some general conception of children. Teachers will view,
through slide or videotape presentations, case-studies of
particular children experiencing various approaches to
learning in social studies. Actual samples of student
work would be available. Teachers are going to work toward
the development of a unit for their class, taking the
needs, abilities and interests of that specific group of
children into account.

View of Evaluation

The evaluation section of the Proposal is brief and
rather vague. Evaluation seems to be envisioned as
serving two purposes. The first purpose is concerned with
collection of descriptive data regarding the in-service

experience itself. These data would come from the participants.

View of In-Service

The Proposal displays a perspective on in-service that is broader than the one-shot session approach. As well as the in-service sessions themselves, in-service includes "time for in-classroom experimenting with new roles and time for reflection on this classroom experience" (p. 10).

The mode of presentation is termed "mutualistic" (p. 10), meaning in this context, that teachers are to participate in the shaping of their in-service experience. It was not to be determined for them beforehand.

Emphasis is placed on social interaction as a means of exchanging ideas and as a way of building up the accepting environment and mutual support that is necessary to experimenting with new roles.

View of Resources

A concern for commitment at both the level of Alberta Education and that of local school boards is evident. Alberta Education is urged to hire additional regional consultants, while local boards are commiserated with because Alberta Education has given them the responsibility for in-service, while at the same time providing few resources to assist them in carrying out this responsibility.

The Proposal shows an awareness of the fact that it takes a great deal of time for teachers to acquire new

teaching strategies, but that little time is actually
allocated by school boards for this purpose.

View of Social Studies

The view inherent in the statements made concerning
social studies seems to be that to teach the subject
well is a complex undertaking requiring teaching strategies
which are unfamiliar to a great many teachers, who have
had no particular assistance, either in their pre-service
teacher education or during their in-service teaching of
the subject.

In addition to the view of teachers, children,
evaluation, in-service, resources, and social studies
implicit within the Proposal, a number of explicit statements
are made concerning the intended shape of the in-service
program and the various factors which were taken into
account in determining that shape are listed.

Six factors taken into account by the developers in
determining the shape of the in-service program are as
follows:

1. Directions from the advisory committee
    indicating that their priority for the
    program is that it provide assistance to
    Division II teachers, Division III teachers,
    Division I teachers, and lastly, Division
    IV teachers.

2. The results of the survey of forty teachers,
    consultants, supervisors and administrators
    conducted by the advisory committee.

3. The results of a similar but more extensive
    survey of teachers elsewhere. (pp. 1-2)

The results of the two surveys were very diverse. They are summarized in the Proposal as follows:

> The surveys would seem to suggest that in-service efforts be directed in the following areas:
>
> - Organizing Social Studies for inquiry approaches
> - Using a variety of approaches and strategies to increase student interest and motivation. (p. 9)
>
> 4.   The implications of recent research on in-service efforts and the results of the above two surveys for the MENTOR series.   (p. 2)

The recent research on in-service education has been extensively reviewed in an earlier part of this thesis. From this review a number of tenets were drawn, which briefly summarize the state-of-the-art of research in this area.

Together, these tenets provide a picture of the elements of an effective in-service program. They are as follows:

- The expressed needs of teachers determine the content and shape of the in-service program.

- Teachers are directly involved in planning the program (goals, content, instructional approach, evaluation, etc.).

- Opportunities are provided for teachers to learn from one another.

- The program takes place in the school setting.

- Attendance is voluntary.

- Opportunities for social interaction are provided.

- Provision is made for presentation of theory or description of the skill or strategy, demonstration, practice, feedback, and coaching for application if the goal is for participants to master new teaching strategies or to implement a new curriculum.

The remaining two factors taken into consideration by the developers were:

5.   The financial resources that are available to develop materials.

6.   The time constraints under which program development must take place.   (p. 2)

The message in the Proposal is that provision for each of these two factors is limited.

What Ought To Be

One can construct a fairly detailed picture of the in-service program which could be expected based on this Proposal.   Specifically, this picture is based on:

1.   The view of teachers, children, evaluation, in-service, resources, and social studies evident in the Proposal.

2.   Explicit statements concerning the intended shape of the program.

3.   Factors including survey results, the recent research on in-service, and certain practical constraints, which were taken into account by the developers in determining the shape of the program.

The description of the in-service program is divided into a number of categories.   These are: Purpose, Format, Setting, Content, Role of Participants, and Evaluation.

Purpose

To explore "alternate classroom organizations and instructional sequences inherent in the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Program" (p. 1).

Format

Ideally, the program will be ongoing, involving a
number of sessions, with opportunities between for both
practice of new teaching strategies, and to act in the
role of coach as other participants practice.

However, mention is made in the Proposal that, due
to financial and time constraints, the above is not
always possible. Therefore, the program will be flexible,
in order to meet the requirements of those participants
who are able to engage in the longterm program described
above and those who are not.

The program will begin with a self-awareness activity
"which helps teachers become aware of their varying views
about the nature of children and learning, their diverse
goals for Social Studies and their differing beliefs about
how best to teach" (p. 12).

> PART ONE   SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS-WHO ARE WE?

> > The purpose of these experiences would
> > be to have teachers engage in self-
> > analysis in order to determine their
> > view of children, Social Studies, and
> > preferred organisational styles. This
> > information would then be used to help
> > make decisions as to the kinds of inservice
> > experiences they want to pursue in
> > PART TWO. (p. 13)

As a result of this activity participants will form
groups of like-minded individuals. These groups will then
be presented with a preview of available in-service materials,
from which they will choose those elements which seem to be

most suitable to their needs.

    PART TWO   ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION

        The purpose of these experiences would
be to help teachers develop a specific
unit of their choosing based on one
of four classroom organizational patterns.
Patterns to be explored are:
1. The teacher presenter
2. Learning contracts
3. Learning centers
4. Group investigations

        Within each of these major patterns
specific teaching/learning strategies
would be developed. (p. 14)

<u>Content</u>

    The content of the in-service program is to be

concerned with two areas:

- Organizing Social Studies for inquiry approaches
- Using a variety of approaches and strategies
  to increase student interest and motivation (p. 9)

    Each of the four patterns will include case studies

of classes or individual students using that approach, as

well as pertinent articles, samples of student work, and

so on.

    For instance the teacher presenter pattern will

contain the following:

Participant Guide

Sample Displays

Sample film reaction sheets, retrieval charts,
seating arrangements.

Case studies of:
a) Teacher presentation via books, film

b) Directing data organization via
    retrieval charts and question sequences

c) Directing use of knowledge via predicting
    consequences

d) Directing use of guest speakers and tapes
of their presentations

Articles on oral presentations

Articles on rotating data intake and data use

Articles on question sequences to guide discussion,
to generalize, conceptualize, and predict.

Articles on assigning research topics and reports.

Sample student work (p. 15)

Setting

The in-service program will take place in the school
setting whenever possible. Those attending would be the
staff of that particular school.

When this is not possible, "intact groups" will be
achieved through the grouping that will take place as a
result of the self-awareness activity. Cohesiveness will
be increased through the identification of group goals for
the in-service program and through the use of "pens,
paper, folders, notebooks, etc., bearing a logo symbolic
of their group goals" (p. 12). Cohesiveness will be
further increased as group members work through the various
activities and as they interact socially.

Role of Participants

1.   Prior to the In-Service Program

A survey was carried out with forty Alberta educators
to determine their in-service needs. Also a more extensive
survey done in the United States was consulted. This survey
broadened the survey base and repeated many of the concerns
expressed in the Alberta survey.

Prior to the program, then, potential participants had a role in determining the shape of the in-service.

2.   Following the In-Service Program

Participants will be actively involved in a myriad of activities. They will be engaging in self-analysis, planning their in-service experiences, contributing to group decision-making, viewing classroom case studies, examining samples of student work, sharing their own experiences with other participants, applying what is learned to developing a unit for their own class, and contributing to program evaluation.

3.   Following the In-Service Program

Participants will implement in their classrooms the units which they developed, and apply the various approaches and strategies to which they have been exposed, to other social studies units as well. They will teach social studies in an inquiry oriented fashion.

Evaluation

Evaluation will be ongoing, rather than tacked on at the end, as is so often the case.

Teachers will be extensively involved in this aspect of the program. Their task will involve providing descriptive data regarding their experiences in the in-service sessions and allowing observers into their classrooms and possibly going themselves to observe in the classrooms of other participants.

    Evaluation will be concerned with finding answers
to such questions as: What are the participants'
perceptions of their in-service experiences? How congruent
are the perceptions of the participants with those of
the developers? Are the learning opportunities intended
by the developers actually provided? Are they meeting
participants' perceived needs? Does the in-service program
have any impact on the classroom behaviour of participants?

Deliberation

The second phase of the development process has been called deliberation. It is the process of considering alternatives and coming to decisions.

The four deliberative episodes identified by Walker were found in the Mentor Project transcripts. These were explication, brainstorm, report and issue.

In addition to these four deliberative episodes, four other episodes were found in the Mentor discourse. These have been called organization, presentation, update, and invention.

These episodes are not deliberative, in the sense that they are not part of the process of considering alternatives and coming to decisions. However, they are essential to the carrying on of deliberation and are an integral part of the development process. Therefore, it was considered necessary to include them in this analysis.

A third aspect was found to the discourse in the Mentor Project. These data were categorized according to Berger's (1969) concept of "plausibility structures." The three plausibility structures used were legitimations, appeals to significant others, and nihilism. Again, the discourse in these categories was not directly related to decision-making, but was a definite part of the process of development, and could not be ignored.

An _explication_ is defined by Walker as a time when "one person talks at length about ideas, terms, or propositions whose meaning or significance seems unclear or is misunderstood in the group" (1971, p. 120). An explication involves an "orderly, systematic development of ideas in the manner of a lecture" (Walker, 1971, p. 120).

In this example of an explication, one developer is providing both a summary and an interpretation of pilot feedback for the other developers.

> Tom - They're worth scanning through. The
> conclusion that I came away with after I
> scanned through a bunch of those was, regardless
> of what else happened, they did seem to get
> something out of it. That their answers as they
> filled out the spaces on here, the Module Form,
> indicated some pretty good development of
> ideas. The conclusion I reach is that most of
> the people who have gone through the thing
> have answered question three. Those people
> are saying that, yes, the design is effective,
> the model that we're operating from, worked.
> And when you look at their responses that they
> fill in, as they go through and do that
> activity, that series of activities, that supports
> their conclusion that this does work. They do
> learn from it. They come out with some good
> ideas. The other thing that also seems clear
> to me is that when they respond to item one,
> whether it's in writing on this form, or from
> some of the nonverbal feedback that Susan was
> picking up from her class, or some of the
> grousing that seemed to come back from John
> Black's class, there is a concern that the amount
> of time that it takes to invest in the thing
> in order to get the learning back out, is too
> much. You pay too high a price for what you
> get out of it. It's not good value. And the
> third thing that strikes me is, when Susan

played the workshop leader role that we had
intended, which was hand things out, get them
started, and then step back and let them go, that
took twice as long as when Patrick Clark
did it with his students. And I'm sure that he
played a much more interventionist role. So
out of that I conclude, maybe we ought to stick
with our model, but we ought to look at ways
that we can put with it a leader's role that
uh, hustles the thing along a bit more.

(Aug. 26, 1980)

Brainstorm

During a brainstorm episode, "everyone tries to

suggest something that might solve some single problem

or fulfill some particular function (Walker, 1971, p. 119).

This brainstorm session took place at the

instigation of the Project Manager from ACCESS, who

had requested that the developers meet with him to

generate ideas as to ways to vary the presentation

of the first two steps in each module.

Tom - Some ideas about things that we can
vary and look for . . .

Bill - Check. One thing that Ted was talking
about a moment ago, was the Step Twos. Uh,
in all of the modules now, Step Two is
identical, uh, where it's a checkoff. Now,
we can vary that format and still keep it
um, uh, a pencil-and-paper activity, if you,
if you so desire.

Susan - What would be the alternative to a
pencil-and-paper activity?

Bill - No, I mean it could still be pencil-and-
paper activities, but you can vary the
check uh, uh. You could do two different
styles. You can do a checkoff in one. You
can do a rank ordering in another. You can

do a, um, almost a cut-and-paste, you
know, cut your module apart and put them in
piles, you know. You could even . . . . Yeah,
I think we could call for them to be
perforated, so they're pull-apartable. Uh, other
ways . . .

. . . .

Susan - What are you talking about when you say,
"What are some other ways besides pencil-and-
paper?" That's what I'm wondering - what are
the alternatives?

. . . .

Susan - Like an overhead - is that what you're
thinking of, or . . . ?

Bill - That would be a possibility. Maybe, uh,
maybe have them on a set of slides.

Susan - Oh, like have each criterion on a slide.

. . . .

Bill - You could do a black, a chalk-talk type
of approach too, where the criteria would be
suggested to the leader, and the leader could,
uh, you know, write them down, elicit them from
the audience.

. . . .

Bill - How about some nonexamples?

Tom - According to Linda Adams, we've got those.

(Laughter)

. . . .

Betty - We've got poems in some.

. . . .

Susan - We've got that card game in Historical
Documents.

. . . .

Susan - Oh, the <u>Junior Atlas</u> was used in Step
One. Interviewing - conduct an interview.

. . . .

Ted - You might get people to role-play the
possibilities.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

A report is an episode "in deliberation during
which one person briefs the group on events or situations
about which he has privileged information" (1971, p. 119).
The report may be interrupted, and its course changed,
by questions and comments of listeners. However, the
individual who delivers the report is the chief source
of information.

Reports given by members of the Mentor group
were usually concerned with one of two topics--sharing
experiences an individual or pair of developers had had
with piloting a module, or summarizing a telephone
conversation or meeting in which part of the development
committee had met with individuals from ACCESS or
Alberta Education.

Two examples of reports are included here. The
first is concerned with relating part of the message
given by teachers during a pilot session in which two
of the developers had acted as leaders.

> Brad - Well, we keep going round the same thing
> time and time again. We've never had a module
> to pilot. We don't know what they're like.
> All the fancy piloting and piece-meal that's
> gone on.
>
> Tom - That's not quite true, I don't think. I
> asked Ted the other day what they learned from
> doing that Valuing one that would suggest ways
> that it could be made more successful with
> teachers.
>
> Ted - They said two things. They said that
> Step One - they didn't think that Activity Three

was a very good one. The other two activities
they thought were fine. And then they said,
in Step Six - it should be almost like Applying
the Decision. In the Valuing one - I don't
think this applies to Organizing or Gathering,
those types of modules - but there they thought
we needed an example, sort of an example given
to them showing how it works. Show them, in
effect, before they actually got to develop
their own. It seems to me to be a reasonable
type of thing for them to say, bearing in mind that
we don't have Step Three. All you can do is
explain what's going to be in Step Three.
And they haven't got that to look at. They
don't actually view it. Now if they had that Step
Three, whether that would have answered their
needs . . .

(Feb. 11, 1981)

The second example is a report of a telephone

conversation between a developer and the chairman of

the ad hoc committee. Only part of the report has

been reproduced here.

Tom - Anyway, the second thing that Sheridan
got on about then was this - Tornowsky wants
to use the Mentor program as a test of the
principles of the Tri - what was that?

Susan - partite.

Tom - Tripartite Committee had set down
about what in-service should be like. He
wants to get this thing out into the schools
and do some testing to find out whether it
makes any difference. So these are the
principles that should be embedded in the
plan for in-service programs. Apparently
Sheridan feels that the Mentor program is a
fair embodiment of those principles and
therefore, the thing to do to find out if the
principles are any good is to take this out
into the schools and use it to determine
whether it seems to have any impact on
what teachers do after they actively
participate in it. So he's rather anxious
to get Smith going to get the stuff produced
to get the program into the schools. The
Tripartite Committee will make use of it in
determining whether or not the principles ( ).

Brad - What's the Tripartite Committee?

Tom - Tornowsky has got together people from
Alberta Education, A.T.A., and,

Mary - It must be the school trustees.

Tom - and they have formed a committee. We
already had that little publication on
in-service in Alberta ( ) had a proposal
in it, and used social studies as an example.

Brad - I hadn't seen that proposal.

Tom - Yes, you have. I showed it to you.
I've got a copy of it in my office.

. . . .

Mary - I wonder how close Mentor really is to
Tornowsky's . . . ?

Tom - I believe he said there were ten pages
of statements of principles.

Mary - Where?

Tom - Tornowsky had his Tripartite Committee
generate ten pages . . . .

Mary - I thought maybe Mentor . . .

Tom - So Sheridan sits down and reads Tornowsky's
report that he had. Now it's just like the
Mentor program. I said, "You've got to be
kidding." But he said, "It was a good embodiment
of much of the stuff that Fullan and Pomfret have
written." I said, "We can't be talking about
the Mentor program because it doesn't fit." "Oh,
yes, it does." Anyway, he feels it does.
Tornowsky, apparently, has been convinced by
Sheridan that the Mentor program is an embodiment of
sound principles of in-service.

Susan - Has Tornowsky looked at the actual Mentor
series?

Tom - That I don't know.

(Aug. 11, 1980)

Walker defines an issue as a "task-relevant argument. In an issue, some people advocate something and others oppose it or advocate an alternative" (1971, p. 119).

The use of issue in this analysis is slightly different. It is based on Webster's definition, which is as follows: "a point, matter, or question to be disputed or decided", with the emphasis on "decided" rather than "disputed." Walker's use of issue emphasizes the idea of a situation where "something is 'at issue'; opposing points of view are propounded and defended, and discussion is intense and animated" (Walker, 1971, p. 119). Here, the emphasis is on the idea of a problem which has not yet been resolved. The transcript excerpts will portray the process of bringing the problem to a resolution.

Some issues seemed to come up quickly and to be resolved as quickly as they had occurred. However, there were a number of major issues which seemed to reappear time after time.

One was the issue of whether or not the modules required a leader. Originally, the intent was that the in-service modules be adaptable enough to be used by a leader, or, in cases where no leader was available, to stand on their own.

The leader, if present, would adopt a relatively

unobtrusive role. Participants would be directed through the Self-Awareness Inventory and the Overview, on the bases of which they would choose the module with which they would become involved. They would then, individually or in small groups, work with their chosen module, with the leader acting as a facilitator.

In cases where there was no leader, the modules were to be self-directive enough that an individual or group of participants could use them on their own.

Later, a third perception of the way in which the modules were to be used, became apparent. This perception involved a leader who would take a directive, rather than a facilitative, role. This leader would conduct a group of participants through a particular module.

The developers experienced a great deal of difficulty in reconciling these three perceptions. As a result, although this decision had apparently been made as early as February of 1980, questions concerning it continued to arise again and again. In fact, this issue was not truly resolved until the meeting of February 15, 1981.

The first two perceptions are evident in this excerpt from the April 11, 1980 meeting.

> Tom - What else were things that you were talking about last time?

> Ted - Well, the whole idea of whether it should be self-instructing or not . . . .

Mary - In effect, do we need a Leader's Manual?

Ted - Yeah.

Tom - I thought we had sort of decided on that.

Mary - Yeah, we did.

Ted - What did we decide?

Mary - That we did.

Ted - That they, teachers, have to be directed?

Mary - Yes.

Tom - That there must be a Leader's Manual?

Mary - I think we made that decision, didn't we?

Susan - Well, didn't we decide that it was
going to be the same as the Participant's, but
it would have some extra little parts. I think
we did decide that.

Mary - So we perceive that the in-service would
usually be held under the auspices of a leader,
who would need to know what was going on, and
so there would be a guide for that leader.

Tom - Well, we decided that the Participant's
Guide should be self-explanatory.

Mary - Yes, ( ).

Tom - It should be possible for somebody to
pick it up without a leader and go right through
it.

Susan - We decided both, I think, that you could
have the Participant's Manual and go through it
on your own, but also that a Leader's Manual
would be provided so if there was a leader, there
would be extra suggestions.

Tom - Those two seem a little bit contradictory, to
me somehow.

Susan - Yes, a lot of our decisions are.

> Mary - Well, I think we're trying to respond
> to two perceptions of how this goes. Some
> people are perceiving it as something that needs
> a leader and others perceive it as something
> that is self-instructing, and so we have our
> usual split personality.

<div align="right">(April 11, 1980).</div>

The next excerpts make it evident that, four months later, (August 11 and August 12, 1980), the developers were still attempting to reconcile the two perceptions of the way in which the program was to operate.

Adding to the confusion, was a major point which was becoming evident as a result of pilotting. This was that leaderless modules were extremely costly in terms of time. By the time participants deciphered what it was the directions wished them to do, got off topic and back on again, and so on, hours could go by.

> Susan - The other thing that came out, I think,
> was the difficulty of not, when you don't have
> a leader, you know, of letting them go ahead
> and do it on their own . . . . If I sat down
> with a group, because I knew what it was all
> about, then all of a sudden things started to
> move much more quickly . . .
>
> Betty - ( ) easier for everybody if we had just
> prescribed all the way through.
>
> Susan - Well, maybe it requires a leader, where
> they go through and do the same activities, but
> there's somebody helping them along.
>
> Betty - Of course we can't bank on that when it's
> actually being used in the school districts. We
> can't bank on who's going to be leading them.

<div align="right">(August 11, 1980)</div>

Mary - You know what it looks to me like? It looks to me like we never really resolved in our minds the difference between this being used by an individual and it being used by a leader. That's, you know, I think we've talked about it, but I don't think we've ever clearly said, I know we've sort of said, "Well, we'll have it so it can be done by people on their own." But at the same time, I expect we, certainly in my own thinking, have thought, oh well, there'll be a group of people doing this and the group will share. You know, there are some things in there to indicate to me that I still haven't given up on the idea of groups of people working together, with sometimes a leader.

Tom - . . . That premise about working without a leader is expensive in terms of time. It means that they have to figure things out. They can't struggle and muck around, spin your wheels a lot. While that may have some benefits, it's certainly costly in terms of

Susan - And frustrating.

Tom - the amount of time they have to put into it.

Susan - I think that came out very clearly with mine because I purposely tried to make them run in a way that they would find at an in-service. And yet I noticed if I went around as they were working with them, things went much more quickly.

. . . .

Tom - We have to go back. It means more efficiency and less frustration.

Susan - Maybe that's why the opening activity has always been so successful with the advisory committee too, because have you not lead them through the opening activity?

Betty - At what part of the process, though, did that idea of having a Leader's Manual and a Participants' Manual get scrapped? That was quite a long time ago, wasn't it?

Tom - Way back . . . . But if we do that, then we pretty well say all people in the group do the same thing.

Mary - Well, yes, unless we have a leader who
can be like a primary teacher and handle more than
one group. See, I could see at a practical level,
a person walking in with whatever number of
modules we have, and he would say - he would first
of all have the people work out that little
questionnaire. Then he would show them a list
of the possible modules . . .

Tom - You would hope to have a little visual
overview.

Mary - Yes. And then he could have, I suppose, a
show of hands as to which modules were appropriate
and then divide them into x number of groups and
let them do it. That's not going to work. That's
not going to work, eh? No matter what we do, that's
not going to work, unless those materials are
self-instructing. Maybe we should concentrate more
on that idea of them being self-instructing. We
have to keep that in our minds. If you're going
to allow people options of doing one module or
another, even if you have a leader there, the
leader is going to have problems functioning as a
leader with a group. They're going to have to function
as a primary teacher functions, which is just
moving from group to group, assuming that the
materials are self-instructing, that people will
only call on them if they need help.

Tom - That didn't work very well. They had
problems (   ).

Susan - It's our directions too. They had problems
with the directions.

Mary - But I think, you know, maybe that conflict
has been in our minds, about the role of the
leader in this and it has prevented us from
really making them self-instructing.

Tom - Part of the self-instructing idea has been a
disinclination to be prescriptive. We've left
some latitude in there, and leaving latitude in
there has left some frustration.

Mary - Well, I don't know. Susan, what was the
nature of the frustration as you went around to
the groups? Was it because they didn't understand
what was intended?

Susan - That was part of it. Things like - they
didn't understand what to do with activities
and sometimes it was just very concrete things
like the directions were after the activities
done before, and just things like that, you know,
that we could fix. I can see ways that we could
make things much clearer.

Mary - Alright. Well, see I think maybe we
haven't spent that much time on the self-directing
nature of the documents because in our minds
we've always been shifting back and forth between
groups working together, and so, if we went back and
said, and designed it so that an individual could
take that document, sit down, and work through it.

(August 12, 1980)

At this time the plan was still to have a

Participant's Manual and a Leader's Manual. By November, this

had evolved to having a Participant's Manual, with a few

notes to the leader contained within it.

Bill - Is it, the first questions I'd like to ask -
is it your intention to have a uh, leader for
each of these modules or are they intended to
be self-instructional, or does the leader have
to have a great deal of knowledge in the area,
does it have to be like a Regional Office
Consultant, or a Social Studies Supervisor, or
what-have-you, or can it be um, um, a Department
Head who gets a package in the mail, reads
through some directions?

Tom - Okay, first three things. The participants'
print material - we intend what we gave you to
be complete.

Bill - Um, um the drafts.

Tom - That everything there required for a
participant to use it, as far as print material
goes, we intend it to be there.

Bill - Yes.

Tom - So, if you have some things that you're concerned about that may not be there, then, by all means, we should be addressing those.

Bill - Um hm.

Tom - Secondly, as far as the leaders' print material goes, we tried to design them to be self-directive, that is, a teacher could obtain the print material and, if it was media material accompanying it, obtain that as well, and sit down and, and um, follow it, so that the directions to the leader, in most cases, are really minimal. You'll find that it suggests equipment needed.

Bill - Um hm, whatever equipment's required.

Tom - as part of a note to the leader, kind of thing. And, then inside farther, in Step Three, the demonstration, it usually explains to the leader where these demonstrations came from, what grade they're from, whether they're from a Kanata Kit or Teaching Unit, that sort of thing. But, that's about all there is. And that we designed into the print material, period.

Bill - Um hm.

Tom - Am I correct?

Betty - Um hm.

Bill - We didn't intend a separate Leader's Manual.

Betty - We did way back at the beginning.

Tom - Oh, yeah, way back.

Betty - We did. We were visualizing a Leader's Manual, a Participant's Manual, and so on and so forth.

Bill - Yes.

Betty - And then, gradually our thinking got to the point where we thought we'll make the whole thing

Bill - Self-instructional.

Betty - self-instructional, so that anybody could

pick it up and do it, if they have the a-v
material and a VTR, or whatever they need.

(Nov. 21, 1980)

In November of 1980, then, the developers intended
to have a Participant's Manual, with a few notes to the
leader contained within it.

By February of 1981, it had become evident that a
final decision had to be made.

Bill - (Sigh) It seems that this is something
that Alberta Ed. has been sort of skirting around
and not being able to really deal with is - it
seems to me that a fundamental decision has to
be made. Are these things going to have to rely
on a leader being there and a leader being
trained to run it, or are they going to be
self-instructional and not dependent on a leader?

Betty - It's late now because we're - the way
it is now, you know, all of the things that we've
mentioned today are because we thought they had
to be self-directed.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

The final decision was to have a Participant's and
a Leader's Manual for each module. A far greater emphasis
was to be placed on the role of a leader.

Four factors stand out as having influenced this
decision. One was the perennial problem that participants
had with the directions, when left to work through the
modules on their own.

Tom - See, Sheridan has been using it in pretty
much a self-directed activity. His role, pretty
much, has been get people together, distribute
the materials, pick them up when they're done.
And he said that, uh, "I've been trying to fade back
into the woodwork when they work on it, and let
them go." Consequently they spend an awful lot
of time chewing on the directions.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

A second factor, evident from piloting, was that activities and examples at grade levels other than participants' own, tended to seem irrelevant, and were not particularly motivating. Since the in-service program was designed for teachers of grades one to twelve, activities and examples within any one module were taken from materials at several different grade levels. In fact, it could well happen that the only activity in the module in which a participant was involved, which directly pertained to the grade which that participant was teaching, would be Part Six, which involved developing an activity for use with one's own class.

A leader, knowing that he was to provide the Openers module, for instance, to a group of Division IV teachers, would likely substitute the activities in the module with examples at the Division IV level. If the participants could choose any module and use it in a self-directed manner, it would not be possible for a leader to make these accommodations, since he could not predict which modules participants would choose. In terms of time, it is unlikely that he would be able to alter all of the thirteen modules for a particular group.

> Bill - You see, it makes quite a difference.
> Because if there was a Leader's Manual, well,
> it's the kind of adjustments, I think, that we
> would all make. In this Evaluating Values one,
> there's no way you would go to a group of
> high school teachers with the example taken from
> first grade or fifth grade. You'd round up the
> examples that would be from them or from
> youngsters they're dealing with.

<div align="right">(Feb. 15, 1981)</div>

A third factor was concerned with Alberta
Education's decision to put 2.2 million dollars into
providing salaries for one hundred twenty-five resource
teachers throughout the province, who would use the
Mentor Program as a vehicle for implementation of the new
curriculum.

> Bill - It seems to me that the emphasis that
> Alberta Ed.'s putting on it in terms of um, the
> money and the time commitment that they are
> um, putting to this, by having uh, a group of
> what is he talking about, one hundred or two
> hundred leaders? One hundred and twenty? Okay.
> That they're going to be trained to run this
> series of workshops. That that means that
> there is going to be a leader who's trained to
> run the thing and that they're going to be
> happening in group settings because the school
> districts are going to be encouraged through
> grants providing release time for the teachers
> who particpate. So, uh, it seems that that
> decision has been made, but the um, the result
> of it is now apparent for us.

> (Feb. 11, 1981)

A fourth factor was that pilot teachers seemed to
expect that someone would take the role of leader and
guide them through the module.

In February, a series of six pilot sessions was
carried out in one school. Participants made it clear
that they expected leadership.

> Betty - We explained that the modules were
> supposed to be as self-directed as possible because
> the ad hoc committee were (sic) considering every
> possible use that could be made of them in the
> province. And that they couldn't depend on a
> leader. Nobody'd told them that before. They
> were depending . . . . We saw that right at the
> beginning, didn't we? They were looking to us all
> the time for leadership. What do we do now? What
> do we do next?

> (Feb. 11,1981)

After thirteen months of looking at both sides of this issue, the decision was made to make the last two pilot sessions leader-directed.

> Ted - See, I guess in lots of ways the difference between our, between Mentor and most workshops, or most in-services, or whatever it is they go to, is the fact that usually they do have someone who comes in and does his piece, and then has scattered around the room, you know, you can pick up these things when you go. And we've still got that part too. That's our Appendices. But the part that you usually don't get in most workshops is where you sit down with a group of people and develop something so that you know the process for when you go back to do it with your kids. And that seems to me to be the whole purpose of Mentor.
>
> Susan - And they see it as sitting down and getting this workbook to fill out. And they say, "Why go to a workshop to fill out a workbook? It doesn't make sense."
>
> Betty - But we were very conscious right from the start that these were supposed to be self-directive. They weren't supposed to be dependent on somebody teaching the module to them.
>
> Bill - I think that's where we may have to ( ).
>
> Susan - We could have a leader maybe, without having it that directive that it's teaching it to them. Maybe it does need a leader. Teachers sure seem to be saying that it needs a leader.
>
> Betty - Yeah, they seem to want people to take them, somebody to take them through the steps.
>
> . . . .
>
> Susan - These 125 teachers that are going to be trained - are they going to be, is the idea that they will be using Mentor modules?
>
> Ted - Yeah.
>
> Susan - With other teachers?
>
> Bill - Um hm.
>
> . . . .

Susan - It seems sensible for us to leave the
self-directed then, in terms of this change.

Betty - Yeah, but we still obeyed the committee
in making them self-directed.

Susan - ( )

Betty - Now the script's been changed.

Susan - Exactly. As usual. The script's been
changed in midstream. But, maybe that's to our
advantage.

. . . .

Ted - We'll lead 'em. We'll lead 'em. We'll say,
- I'll share an example with them of the Riverbend
one. And then try to get responses from them.
"What have you done?" (Laughter) "Nothing."
"That figured." "What have you got?" (Laughter)

. . . .

Tom - "Oh, worthless one, what have you done?"

Betty - Rita'll pop you in the nose.

Ted - ( ). Get off your ass and do some social
action.

. . . .

Ted - I'll try it. I'll act as though I'm the
leader.

Susan - That's right. You'll be the leader.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

It was decided, following these last pilot sessions,

that the leader would take a directive role. Each

module would be accompanied by a Leader's Manual, as

a means of explicating and expanding upon the steps of

the module proper. Both the Leader's Manuals and the

modules would be available for any teacher who wished to

use the program independently.

Another major issue was concerned with the question of where the classroom demonstrations were to be obtained and who was to teach them.

At first the issue seemed to be simply whether one class would be filmed through an entire unit or a different class would be used for each episode.

> Mary - By the way, there was one other decision that we had to make related to all of this and that was the one that you raised toward the end of that meeting, and that is - are the samples which are developed to illustrate each of these going to be from a continuous activity going on in the classroom or separate episodes?
>
> . . . .
>
> Tom - The things that, I guess when I got into this Data Analysis one, one of the things that struck me was that the videotape, most effectively should be done in a classroom where the kids have been working on this unit for a period of time, and they've been collecting data and organizing as they go along and the classroom abounds with displays of things that they've accumulated as the unit has progressed and when they come to this point in time in the unit they've got tubs of data laying around that they're in the process of trying to make sense of and to analyze. And yet, what seems more likely to be the case is that they'll go into a Grade nine classroom and they'll say to the teacher, "We need to stage this lesson so that we can get it into our in-service program. Will you teach this for us next week? Here's the script. Go ahead and do this." The kids won't have the background that lead up to that data analysis activity, and so the kind of responses you'll get from kids won't be the same as you'd hoped they might be had they been in midflight in a unit that had been going on. The likelihood of getting what would come across as a valid classroom scene, a demonstration of the reality of a classroom, as they work through this process in a unit, seems less likely to achieve that.
>
> Mary - So . . .

Tom - An alternative, then, I'm saying, would be to try and take a few units, get them taught, use some classrooms from beginning to end,

Ted - Well, I can see advantages of it too, but I think there's a tendency when people go through in-services where it's focussed on one classroom they see that as some individual who's considered to be sort of an exemplar, if you want, and they follow him. They always, I think there's that failure to recognize the situation; whereas when you've got different situations, different approaches of teachers, I think that probably they can relate to it better.

Susan - But Tom's point is really valid. What's the point of having kids going around analyzing data that they didn't collect or organize?

Ted - Well, that's true.

(April 11, 1980)

There was concern, at this time too, that ACCESS might decide to hire actors and have the classroom episodes scripted.

Hugh - . . . we're going to hire actors, teachers. We're going to hire kids who are actors, and they're going to come in and there are going to be thirty scripts, twenty-five scripts, what have you, and they're going to do this, exactly as you want it, saying exactly what you want them to say. I'm not saying - I would believe that you could come up with a fair degree of reality. It would look very, very real. I think it's possible. I think that's what his answer's going to be.

Tom - I don't think that's a very good answer.

Hugh - I'm not giving you what you want to hear. I'm telling you what may happen.

(April 11, 1980)

In an August 27th, 1980 meeting, the developers spent several hours in disucssion of this issue. They listed a number of alternatives and reviewed the

advantages and disadvantages of each. A summary of
the discussion is outlined below. It is followed by
excerpts from the meeting transcript.

Alternatives	Advantages	Disadvantages
1. Give lesson plans to ACCESS and take no further responsibility for the demonstrations	Would save time.	Lack of confidence in the results.
2. Developers prepare lesson plans for different teachers to do different segments.	Could show a variety of situations; i.e., rural and urban, inexperienced and experienced teachers, different divisions, split grade and straight grade classes.	Lack of continuity between segments. Increased cost of filming. Developers' consultative role becomes much more difficult. Lose credibility in the eyes of teachers viewing the demonstrations (unless each class happens to, in fact, be actually doing the unit, a segment of which is being taped.)
3. Developers identify classrooms and follow each through a unit.	Continuity. Convenient for consultative role of developers. Credibility Could do this at Calgary Demonstration School, thus overcoming the Advisory Committee's objection to Edmonton	Advisory Committee would object to use of Edmonton teachers. Time consuming. Teachers might prefer to view a variety of classroom situations. Might be difficult to find teachers to do it.

4. Demonstration School in Calgary | Overcomes technical problems. | Developers' consultative role becomes more difficult.

Teachers might prefer to view a variety of classroom situations.

5. (a)
Developers teach a unit or have practising teachers teach it for course credit. | Quality of lessons.

Credibility of lessons because they are part of an ongoing unit. | Time consuming.

Would have to be in or near Edmonton.

If the developers do it, they might be criticized for not being classroom teachers.

(b)
Developers teach parts of a unit or have practising teachers teach them for course credit. | Quality of lessons. | Time consuming.

Lack of continuity between segments.

Would have to be in or near Edmonton.

The developers could be criticized for not being classroom teachers.

6. Developers identify a rural and an urban classroom and follow each through a unit. | Continuity.

Credibility.

Would show two very different situations. | Teachers might prefer to view a variety of situations.

Betty - I wish we had a school right in the

Ted - university

Betty - university here. It'd be great.

Tom - Calgary does.

Betty - Yeah.

Susan - We talked before about using it.
They've got it well

Tom - set up for sound.

Betty - Would it answer a lot of these concerns
that we've been expressing - like captive
teacher, doing the Kanata Kit, doing Teaching
Unit, you know, real-life situation that teachers
will believe? Would it answer all of them?

Tom - Many of them.

Ted - I wonder if we should be using it then?

Betty - Why shouldn't we do it? Why shouldn't we
do it because if it solves a lot of our
problems . . .

Susan - Do they have regular class sizes?

Tom - Um hm.

Betty - It's got all those factors that we've
talked about?

Tom - Yeah, it's a school that has - it's set
up so that there are microphones placed
throughout the classroom. And there's a viewing
gallery with one-way glass that's elevated well
up above the classroom. So you sit up in that
viewing gallery. And, as I recall, we had a
set of buttons that we could push to turn on
different microphones around the room.

(Talking at once. Unintelligible)

Betty - Wouldn't that be ideal? Wouldn't it
be easier for the production people too, the
video equipment?

Susan - The sound would be better.

. . . .

Betty - I know in my own experience, a few
teachers that I've - I don't know as they'd be
willing to do it, I can't answer for it, but
I know they'd be good at it. They could do it,
in the city here, if we wanted to do that. But
what about these things, as Ted was saying,
these technical things that we can't do much
about? Like the physical environment might not
be good.

Ted - See, like, you were saying things like
they've got microphones that you can zero in on and,

that would make a tremendous amount of
difference. Whereas if you have an ordinary
video camera with a mike on it, you point it
at the kid, but you can get a lot of chair
squeaking noises, and if you've got carpets,
and all those things. Certainly - perhaps
enhance the quality of it.

Tom - But if you were going to make the media
component fourteen modules, in a couple of
classrooms, then you could afford to install
some wiring and lay down a piece of carpet.

Ted - Yeah, I'm sure, I'm sure that ACCESS
have all that where they can, you know, it
shouldn't really be such a problem as it's
turned out to be. And yet, they all seem to
come back at you by saying, "Well, you know,
you're asking for the moon."

. . . .

Betty - The, uh, why don't one of us do it instead
of asking a classroom teacher to do it?

Tom - I don't know if . . .

Betty - Why don't we do it? Ask somebody
to let us have their kids. Rather than us
doing all these tortures of figuring out who
we're going to get and what we're going to do.
For God's sake, I'll do it. That would solve
everything. Get all the physical characteristics
ironed out. Just give me a group of kids and
I'll teach them anything, any crap. And it'll
be done. And I'm reasonably good at it, because
I've been at the game a Hell of a long time.

Tom - Well, I . . .

Betty - Now, the second best choice for that
is, if we're going to do it in the city here,
let's find someone that one of us knows is
reliable, that we're not going to have to
worry too much about them making a big hash of
it.

. . . .

Tom - We have a policy decision to make, it seems
to me.

Ted - Yeah.

Tom - Are we going to say to Smith, "We want
this set up to follow two classrooms right
through a unit and go in and tape whenever
they're doing that piece that's a good example.
We're gonna collect kids' work and incorporate
some examples of kids' work as illustrations.
Here are some research questions that Miss Jones'
Grade Five class generated."

. . . .

Tom - We picked, let's say Grade Five, Grade
Eight. Those are two midpoints of Division Two
and Division Three. Then you go in and get
some teacher to agree to let us use their class
to generate the media examples. What Brad and I
had talked about way back last February, when
we were first thinking about this, was to try
and identify some of our students that were
pretty sharp, who could, as a credit course, go
in and teach a unit. So we say to the classroom
teacher, "Okay, we'll take care of your social
studies for you for the next few months."
Maybe we could have two or three students who
could get credit for a course. Take a
Teaching Unit . . .

Betty - And go right through it.

Tom - Or go to the classroom and offer
assistance in preparing for the lesson.

Betty - Or take turns at teaching different
things for different videotapes.

Tom - And then you would identify the activities
in that unit plan that you thought were good
illustrations of each of the modules that
we're working on.

. . . .

Tom - . . . planned what we're going to say to
Smith. "Here's a lesson plan. Go find somebody
and have it done." Right?

Ted - Yeah.

Tom - That's one.

Ted - The second one is we find somebody and
prepare the lesson plan and then say to Smith,
"You go film."

. . . .

Ted - That's the second alternative, yeah.
Different people do all of the various bits.

Betty - Now, what was the first one?

. . . .

Ted - The first one that we just give the stuff
to Smith and then turn him loose to find them and
do the whole thing.

Tom - And the third is that we try and identify
two classrooms and trace them through

Ted. - Yeah.

Tom - the whole series.

Betty - Now, the second one, we generate the
stuff and then say to Smith, "You film it." Is
that it?

Ted - We find twenty-eight people. That would
be the most.

Tom - Are there others?

Betty - I'm too tired.

Tom - What else could we do?

Ted - Well, we had the idea about Calgary.

Betty - Yeah, put that down.

Ted - I don't know how we would quite do that
one, but ... That's because of the technical
things as much as anything else and hopefully
being the university experimental place, the
quality would be good. And I suppose the fifth
was that we, that people like Betty or
somebody would do it.

. . . .

Tom - Alright, well, the main advantage of that
first one is that it's . . .

Ted - Out of our hands.

Betty - He does it.

Tom - We simply say to Smith, "Here, go take
care of it and don't bother us about it."

Ted - I don't think we can do that one somehow.

Susan - The big disadvantage is that you can't, you know, trust that everything will work out as we want it if we don't take responsibility for it.

Tom - The disadvantage, I guess, is that we don't have much confidence in the quality of what gets generated that way.

Susan - Right.

Betty - It wouldn't meet our needs, I suspect it wouldn't meet our needs.

Ted - So Number One is low.

Tom - Number Two, we select twenty-eight teachers to tape media examples.

Ted - There could be less than twenty-eight.

Susan - Are we not using . . .

Tom - A bunch.

Ted - Yeah, a bunch.

Tom - Alright. We don't worry about quality.

Ted - No, the organization of that might be difficult.

Susan - Impossible almost.

Ted - Whereas, with the next one, the third one, when you just have the two, and we follow them through . . .

Tom - Well, but wait just a minute. For Number Two, I think one of the main advantages is Linda Adams' argument, that it gives you the opportunity to show urban, rural, uh, split classes, um, Division One, Division Two, Division Three, Division Four, inexperienced teachers, some old experienced teachers . . .

Ted - But we still want exemplars of those twenty-eight.

Tom - Yeah, alright, but it does provide an answer to Linda Adams' concern about, "Oh, you aren't going to show us these Edmonton teachers, and these Edmonton kids, and these Edmonton schools, and these Edmonton books, and these Edmonton libraries." You guys should go to some of these meetings.

Betty - I've heard it on the tapes. No thank you.

Tom - Number three. That is Number Three?

Betty - We find people to do it. We do it.

Tom - Okay, the problem there would be, yeah, Getting some good people to do it.

Ted - But organization-wise . . .

Tom - Yeah, another problem would be the disadvantage of selling it to the advisory committee because they would immediately have conniption fits.

Betty - Why?

Tom - Because it's the same old Edmonton teachers.

Betty - Oh, that. Oh, I see. I thought you meant something different.

Susan - It's a good argument, such as the continuity of the thing, that way, as being . . .

Tom - They dismiss that though. They said, "How can you argue continuity? I thought your basic proposal was that teachers select out of the fourteen, ones that they want to do? They might start with Evaluating Knowledge and then you get no continuity."

Susan - Yes, you don't get continuity, but you get the connection. Say, if they do, even just two modules, they can maybe see a connection because it's the same unit.

Betty - Or is that not into our third one here, is that if we find the people to do it, it's this do a whole unit deal?

Tom - We take two months, and we say, "Okay, let's take this Kanata Kit and go in there with it and teach that Kanata Kit for two months." And when we come to the good example of Synthesizing Data,

Betty - Right.

Tom - then he tapes it.

Susan - It's got lots of advantages.

Ted - Look, the thing is, that one has lots of advantages. If, if Smith is our problem, Number Two is the one to go for because he'll be all over Hell's half-acre with his cameras trying to do

that. And he'll be against that right now.

Susan - He'll be against Number Two.

Ted - Against Number Two. If he's got to go
up to Crooked Creek to take, you know, an
experienced teacher, go to Calgary, and over
to Lethbridge, and . . .

Susan - That's going to increase the cost
too, isn't it?

Betty - I don't give a damn what it costs. That's
their problem.

Tom - If they decide to throw some bucks after
it . . .

Susan - That's certainly different from June.

Ted - If they're throwing bucks, I wouldn't be
at all surprised if they don't come up with
Number Two.

Betty - A lot of different clips from all over
the province and all those different people and
. . .

Ted - ( )

Betty - God, it'd be nice to let them. They'd
be in a real hodge-podge. Couldn't it? You know,
all sorts of categories . . .

Susan - ( ) about what we're doing.

Tom - Our consultative role, because that's part
of our responsibility to play a consultative role
with production, becomes a rather demanding one
because of uh . . .

Ted - Well, Number, Number, Number, well, when you
use two people, Number Five, could be the thing.

Susan - Yeah, it could be two people from here.

Ted - Could be two people from here or it could
be people from Calgary which are doing the same
in that school.

Betty - No, I don't see three and five being the
same at all.

Ted - Why not?

Tom - He's saying they could be.

Ted - They could be.

Betty - Yeah, yeah, yeah.

Ted - They're not necessarily. No, it's not the same, in that sense, but, I mean, if Linda is always worrying about Edmonton, well I mean . . .

Betty - Oh, I don't give a damn if it's down in Calgary except that it's inconvenient for us if we have to get involved in it.

Tom - It would be interesting to go back over the decision-making process here. See how we worked through the inquiry process.

Susan - Now, we're resolving the issue.

. . . .

Susan - Listing the advantages and disadvantages - the most advantages seem to be by Number Three.

Tom - I'm not so sure that the advisory committee would agree with you on that. You were saying the most.

Susan - Yes.

Tom - I think they would say, "You have to limit those."

Betty - They might see Two as being good.

Tom - I think - well, one of the things that I think is another factor here, and I'll come back to it some time because I keep thinking back to the response that our students had to those Sydney microteaching films. And their response consistently was, "That's not reality. Those things have no credibility with me. They're too fake." And to the extent, it seems to me, that you dash in, tape a lesson, dash out, that you lose credibility. It's harder to convince people that yes, this was a good example of synthesizing data out of an ongoing unit. It

seems to me that the best way to get credibility
is to have a real class, a real teacher, go through
a real unit, and encounter the real problems that
you always encounter in teaching social studies.

Susan - That's a very strong argument for the
advisory committee.

Tom - Some of your so-called exemplary lessons
may not be as exemplary as you wish, but are useful
because they are going to have credibility. Teachers
are going to look at them and say, "Um hm, I can
understand that happening."

. . . .

Tom - Well, where are we here? Number three.
How about Number Four, the Demo School in Calgary?
The advantages are largely technical.

. . . .

Betty - . . . and it would also satisfy these
Calgary people who say that we do everything up
in Edmonton.

Tom - Alright, Number Five. We teach the lesson
ourselves.

Betty - Now, is this one involving us following
a unit, like Number Three? We would, if it was us,
as opposed to uh, other people doing it, would
we do it this way, running a whole unit trying to
teach a whole unit bit by bit. Or would we go
in and do bits of a unit, assuming that the
classroom teacher would do the rest?

Tom - Those are two separate alternatives?

Betty - It seems to me that's Five-a and Five-b.

Tom - Right.

Betty - Yeah.

Ted - The only thing, only . . .

Betty - See, I'm thinking of the disadvantage of
that being the time for any of us.

Ted - That, well, that too, you know. They'd say,
"Who is that?"

Susan - It's not a teacher."

Ted - "It's not a teacher, you know. Those
are education students at university."

Betty - Well, how are they going to know that?

Tom - Oh, somewhere or another, they'll have to
say, "Thanks are extended to," and . . .

Susan - Yeah.

Ted - Especially if they're going to be banging
them all around the province. The first thing
they want to do is put big ACCESS on them and
they'd probably have who was connected with it.
"The teacher, Mrs. B. Griffiths, Ph.D. student,
University of Alberta."

Betty - In brackets, "Taught school since Jesus
Christ was born." That ought to be on there.
That, that wouldn't matter, you don't think?
(Chuckle)

Tom - ( ) get excellent quality ( )

Betty - We get, we would get, what made me think
of it, or even suggest it, was that we would
get what we wanted. Right? It sounds very
selfish, but we would get exactly what we wanted.
We'd write the script, and whoever did it, would
do it the way the script said, you know. And we
wouldn't have to worry about - then it would become
Smith's problem to get it technically good
because we'd be trying to guarantee, you know, the
quality of the content, if you like.

Tom - Other advantages? If you taught the whole
unit you would have the credibility.

Betty - Of that.

Tom - I think they'd be real. You'd get to know
the kids well enough so that you could call them
by name. You wouldn't have the problem of "People
in Need."

Betty - I'm beginning to think though, look at the
time this is going to take.

Ted - Yeah.

Susan - Yeah, think of the time. That's the other thing.

. . . .

Ted - My preference, my preference would be if we found two people, and they went right through a unit. And that could be either, that could be the Calgary one as well. So I could see those two together.

Betty - That's three and four.

Ted - Three and four. But I suspect the committee will go for Number three.

Susan - Then maybe we should present a strong argument for the other two.

Ted - I think we did. I think Tom did.

Susan - I do too.

Betty - You could sell that.

Tom - I tried one day.

Betty - We sell refrigerators to Eskimoes. We could sell that to the committee.

Tom - I'll tell you why I quit smoking some day. We, we discussed that with the committee and they were not buying it, and particularly Linda Adams was not buying it.

Betty - Well, would she be happy if we go to Calgary and do it, where it's Calgary kids, and Calgary classrooms and Calgary books? What's the difference? Everything's just the same here. What big deal is it?

Susan - Classrooms are going to, be the same.

Betty - Sure.

Ted - ( )

Betty - Who's gonna know which part of the province the classroom's in - I mean, Edmonton, Calgary?

Ted - Well, what about their argument? But I think the cost, obviously, is a tremendous factor here,

Susan - Well, yeah.

Ted - except Number Two. Knowing this province
though, if it's half a million dollars, you
know, they can kick that out in no time at all.

Betty - Would Smith be prepared to go to Calgary?

Tom - Bill Smith is operating out of the
assumption that these things will be generated
in a variety of different settings because he
sat through several advisory committee meetings
where Linda was . . .

Betty - So he's prepared to go to Crooked Creek
and . . .

Tom - I would guess so.

Betty - Sleepy Hollow, and God knows where all.

Susan - What's the reason for it? Is it
political, just political?

Ted - No, it is and it isn't. I think what
they're trying to say is that we have to recognize,
in the province of Alberta, there are all sorts
of ( ).

. . . .

Tom - The only thing that we have left to do
right now, I guess, is to try and resolve this
about media examples. What do we do about that?
We've got five alternatives down and then we
went through a decision-making process

Betty - ( ) arguing ( )

Ted - ( ) two teachers and we'll follow them
through. I really don't care whether they're in
Edmonton or Calgary. That's probably the one
which is best for us organization-wise and
development of the lesson plans, and the whole
bit. But I think that the committee from what
Tom has said, will opt for Number two, where
you have about twenty-eight people starting in
Fort Chip to Pincher Creek, the one room school
to a . . .

Brad - I don't think that Smith will allow them
to go for that one.

Ted - No, that's the cost factor then, you see,
but . . .

. . . .

Brad - Two teachers in a local school.

. . . .

Ted - You can work with these people. You can help them with their lesson plans.

Brad - You can get them the material.

Tom - You're getting this all down?

Susan - Yes. That's the one that we, as a committee, seem to prefer.

Betty - Which one is that?

Susan - Number three.

. . . .

Tom - I think what we've got to do is get all five of us to go and talk with the committee. Get an equal number of people working from that point of view. Because we sure got talked down on that one last time.

Brad - We did.

Tom - ( )

Ted - He can overrule us, can he? He can say we're going to go to twenty-eight scattered points?

Tom - The alternative is not to convene that committee until the direction is . . .

Brad - Yeah, I don't think that would be a wise thing to do though.

Ted - Well, maybe . . .

Brad - It just makes good sense in terms of continuity. I see an Opener in a fifth grade class and if I see . . .

Tom - The response to that was that a lot of people probably were only going to do one or two modules. And they may start with one on Evaluating Knowledge.

Brad - But, still, for those people who do go through it . . .

. . . .

Brad - Why not just have one classroom of kids do one module and take off?

Susan - Right, they don't need to see rural and urban.

Ted - It's really a, really a funny argument.

Betty - Catch-22. That's what they're in.

Tom - Maybe what we should do - how does this grab you?

Betty - This alternative six?

Tom - Alternative six is a combination of three and two or three and something, where we have one classroom set up like McKernan or someplace. And another classroom set up at Gwynne.

Brad - (   )

Betty - Who's doing that?

Brad - And when you're, when you're inside that classroom, what's going to be different? Let's try and think about this, whether it's Gwynne, Calgary, or McKernan.

Betty - We just said that before you came in. Who's gonna know?

Tom - I think several things are going to be different because I think of those kids down at Gwynne, some of the things they filled out on the dayline. Remember the dayline?

Brad - You get a dummy in Edmonton do do it.

Tom - No!!! I'm not saying, "Dumb!" (Spoken loudly)

(Laughter)

Tom - I'm saying, whose life experiences are different and when . . .

Betty - Oh, you're so nice. That's a lovely euphemism. "Life experiences are different."

Tom - I'm saying you'll get different responses from those kids. One of the things those kids in "People In Need," over here at McKernan,

they're talking about people in India and
Africa. Perhaps people down in Gwynne are going
to be talking about reserve kids that come into
Wetaskiwin on Saturday mornings.

. . . .

Ted - It's not really - in a sense, all that
they're going to listen for is for the teachers
to note how to

Susan - Exactly!

Ted - use an Opener. So it really doesn't matter
what the responses of the kids are. I mean, if the
kid says, well, you know, Division One about your
needs, he says, "An African." I mean the fact
that he said, "An African," isn't really what the
teacher should be listening to at all. Or if they
say, "The reserve kids down the road," it's
the technique that you use, either in Analyzing
Data or . . .

Susan - Yeah, but teachers do listen for those
things and do object.

Tom - Your argument by, I think misses the concern
that they have about the teacher - I can remember
Linda saying, "You know, teachers are going to look
at that and they're going to say, 'That will
never work in my classroom because' and here are
the reasons they'll give: a. I teach a split
grade and they've got ( ). b. I'm teaching in a
rural setting. My kids don't have those urban
experiences that those kids are using as their
examples. No wonder they understand it - c, d,
e, f, g."

Ted - Linda . . .

Betty - "My kids aren't as verbal as the ones . . ."

Ted - Linda is going to have to be told to climb
a rope.

Betty - Sit on it, Linda.

Ted - The point then, that Linda is missing, is
okay, all of those questions, all of those things
that - mine's a split grade, and my little rural
kids are dumb, and all of those things, that's
fine. When you get to the development stage, which
is really what they're there for,

Betty - The workshop.

Ted - you can take into effect that your
kids are dumb, and they're goint to put something
on a dateline that's different from what the
smart kids do, or the fact you've got a split
grade, or, you know.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

It is clear from these excerpts, that the
developers' preference was for Alternative #3 or
Alternative #6,that an entire unit be filmed in each
of two classrooms. However, according to one of the two
developers who attended the ad hoc committee meetings,
the preference of ACCESS and that of the ad hoc committee,
was alternative #2, that the developers prepare lesson
plans for different teachers to do different segments.
In the end, this was the alternative which was chosen.

A third major issue could be stated as - Should
an in-service program with the intent of teaching about
inquiry, use inquiry?

The developers began with the supposition that the
in-service program should use an inquiry approach.
Three possible reasons for this were:
a) the in-service program was intended to assist in
the implementation of a new social studies curriculum.
The fundamental orientation of this curriculum is
intended to be one of inquiry,
b) the developers, themselves, considered inquiry to
be the most effective way to teach. This was probably
based on a combination of intuition, experience, and
reported research,

c)   research points to the efficacy of learning by
doing.

Therefore, if teachers were to implement the
new inquiry oriented social studies curriculum and
increase their repertoire of teaching strategies, the
in-service which was attempting to achieve these ends,
should itself use inquiry as its predominant teaching/
learning mode.

This was, at first, an implicit decision, since,
until August, when pilotting results began to come
in, the decision itself, to use an inquiry approach,
was not problematic. Rather, the way in which it was to
be used was questioned.

> Mary - Well, Brad, before you came in we were
> talking about the sort of fundamental
>
> Ted - Format.
>
> Mary - purpose of the module. It's to be a
> self-instructing kind of module. Okay, then
> given that, it is a module which assumes that
> we have the right answers, and the right answers
> are placed within the module, or is it to be
> the development of a series of experiences for
> teachers, from which they are making some, or
> drawing some conclusions, and analyzing
> experiences that they have and drawing their
> own conclusions, and the theoretical position
> is something against which they could check or
> legitimize, or whatever word you want to use,
> what they have come up with? Then it would
> seem, like if you put the answers right in the
> text of this module, you're in fact, saying
> we know the right way to do this, and here are
> the characteristics of, let's say, of a good
> Opener.
>
> . . . .

Mary - But I'm saying, "What is its function?
Is it a directive function where it says - this
is the way to do it or is it a support material
for - hey, you've developed some ideas that you
think are good characteristics of, let's say of
an Opener? Here's what an authority says - which,
then, would place that, let's say in an appendix
of the module, as opposed to right within the
text."

Brad - I'm - I guess I'm not really hung up on it
one way or the other.

. . . .

Brad - I guess I would focus on what they're
going to do and how we can help in terms of an
experience that other people have had in trying
to complete the same kind of task. Put that
before them.

Mary - So are you saying that the theoretical data
should be right within the module itself?

. . . .

Mary - I guess the only point I'm making is that
when you put the list in that's on Page 7, you are
saying, "These are the criteria for a good Opener."
Because there isn't a question there that says - you
say, "How well do the Openers demonstrated meet
these criteria?" Okay, so in other words you're
saying, "These are the standards. Did your Opener
meet the standards?" We don't question these
criteria.

Brad - Maybe it's in the way it's presented. It
seems to me that everyone shouldn't have to
recreate the wheel and if people elsewhere have had
experience with Openers and we can put that in
front of them as some . . .

Mary - I'm not arguing that point, Brad. I think
that there should, you know, that this kind of
thing should be available. But I'm saying, "What is
its role?" Like, like why, for instance didn't
we say, "Are these good criteria for an Opener?"
And if we put them in there as, "They are."

Brad - Well, what if we change it and just said,
"Here are criteria for Openers developed by other
people."

Mary - "How useful do you find these criteria?"
Okay, I think that's a different thing than
saying, "Take what you've done and check it
against this because this is right."

Brad - It's the context within which the
experience also is presented that you were
concerned about.

Mary - Yeah. Right. Right. Yeah, not the, not
having that there to verify. No.

Brad - Yeah. Well, I'd agree.

Mary - Just to say, just because this appeared
in a book somewhere, or that we put it together,
that makes it right. It makes it a set of criteria
which are just, are open to criticism in the
same way that anything else is. So, "You've
developed some criteria for Openers. Here's
what somebody else has done. How do you feel
about their criteria?" I mean it may be that
teachers like their own better.

Brad - And the purpose of that is that someone
else may have had more time and they have maybe

Mary - Well, sure.

Brad - ten minutes to look at

Mary - That's right.

Brad - the problem and . . .

Mary - I'm not arguing about putting this kind of
thing in. I'm just saying, "In what context
does it appear?"

Brad - It occurs to me that the series is the
Mentor Series.

Mary - So, if this is going to appear within the
module, then it should not appear as the right
way, but as a way which some people have thought
about. And it's as open to criticism, and needs
to be criticized, in the same way that what
teachers are developing themselves needs to be
criticized.

Tom - Okay, how about if it read on Page 7,
Number 2 - "The following are criteria often
suggested for evaluating Openers. Check ones
which you agree are important. How well did
the Openers demonstrated meet the criteria
checked?"

Mary - Okay, something to that effect so that
it makes these things problematic as well.

. . . .

Mary - Yeah, thing in there, then we make it
problematic as well. We raise questions about - Is
it appropriate? And then it can appear in the body.
It doesn't need to be an appendix. It can go
right in with what we're doing. Okay.

(April 11, 1980)

By August, the message being received from teachers

was that using inquiry to learn about inquiry, while

intellectually honest, was an inefficient use of time.

As one pilot teacher asked, "Is this kind of guidance

an elaborate way to gain little knowledge?"

The problem became one of attempting to please

teachers, as participants in the program, while

at the same time attempting to retain at least those

elements of inquiry which the developers considered to

be of most importance.

A major change occured at this point, with regard

to the extent to which the in-service experience was

to be shaped by the participants. Rather than being

asked to generate a set of characteristics of the

inquiry skill with which a particular module was dealing,

participants were now simply asked to do some critical

analysis of a set which was presented to them.

Brad - Did they like having to generate the
criteria themselves?

Susan - No, they didn't.

Brad - Lay it on.

Susan - Exactly. That's what they were saying.
They would much rather have somebody tell me da, da,
da, da. Then I can go away and do what I want
with it.

Mary - There's a perspective on social studies.

Susan - Yeah, exactly.

Betty - Doesn't it blow your mind?

Susan - They were saying it's an intellectually
honest way of doing it. They didn't use those
words but they're saying that the modules are
using the inquiry process, but we're not interested
in using it.

. . . .

Betty - But the stuff that people want cut out,
as Susan was saying, are the things that we think
are the core of the program - getting teachers
to reflect on this stuff.

. . . .

Betty - Well, I'm happier with the stuff where
teachers are generating their own criteria, or
whatever it is. You know, teacher directed
activities seem to be very useful.

Mary - The teachers are happy with applying the
principles. Right? So, is there some way that
we can, um, use that experience as one where
they are more critically reflective, as opposed
to generating all the criteria on their own?

. . . .

Mary - Susan, you worked with them.

Susan - Um hm.

Mary - Um, how would you change it now?

Susan - To please them? I'd give them more, make
it more prescriptive, give them the criteria, and
let them go ahead and use it, apply it. But

don't have them come up with it.

Mary - Not to generate the principles.

Susan - That's right. And I would - I don't know what else I would take out, but certainly . . . .

Mary - Would they be willing to reflect on the principles once they've applied them?

Susan - Briefly.

Mary - Alright, is your feeling that basically they don't want to, they just want to be told what the right way is?

Susan - Yeah.

Mary - Well then, that leads us to the heart of the whole thing.

Betty - I'm reading prescription as meaning - tell us how to do this and we'll do it or not do it.

Susan - Um hm.

Betty - And I think we know from past experience that if that's the way things are done, then they'll go away and they won't do it.

Mary - Okay, but what - let's try to be very specific about what it is that we think has to happen.

Betty - In the whole Mentor project? I think one of our first considerations has to be that teachers have to learn how to use the social inquiry process. They have to learn what it means. Right?

Susan - But we're ramming it down their throats in a way. They're not going to use it, are they, if they're not happy with it?

Betty - No, that's true, but by the same token they can't use any of this stuff that's been prepared if they don't know how to design a lesson around the process.

. . . .

Tom - They're sending us a message and the message is - "The payoff isn't worth the amount of time that you're making us invest."

Susan - That's right.

Betty - Look at this comment. "I think I would rather just be given an explanation of ways to go about these things, rather than spending all the time actually doing them." This is what I read as prescription. They're saying, you know, that person anyway, is saying, "Tell me how to do it and then I'll either do it or not. Don't make me sit here for three hours doing it, wading through it."

Susan - Yes.

Betty - It's kind of interesting in that comment there about not being interested in playing the role of a Grade Nine student, is really interesting because probably by doing that she, that person, would have got more insights into the process than by sitting as a passive participant, as, you know, practising teacher. So what they're saying is, in effect, "Don't put me through all this schmozz. Just tell us what I'm supposed to do and I'll do it or not."

. . . .

Betty - I don't know how you guys feel, but to me those first activities are very important to them. I think they are.

Susan - We think every activity is important.

Betty - The ones in which they have to do some thinking, I think, are the ones that are important, not just applying.

Tom - Here's one that says, "When you actively participate in the modules, which we did, you become more aware of the process in action."

Susan - A couple of them said that.

Mary - The message is clear though, that if we have an initial activity that they are going to experience, it's got to be short and sweet and to the point and let them identify those things quickly and not do any discussion.

Betty - In fact, I think they even say, "Tell us what the message is. Don't make us try and figure it out."

Susan - Yeah, they don't like these roundabout ways of not getting to the point. They want . . .

Mary - Which is interesting, because that means
they won't do it with their kids either.

Tom - Oh yeah, listen to this. "The module itself
uses an inquiry approach. Is the method a time
waster for in-servicing? Why can't we be more
prescriptive? Teachers need more guidance. Is
this kind of guidance an elaborate way to gain
little knowledge?"

Mary - They don't have any faith in the inquiry
process. So you know they don't do it in their
classrooms.

. . . .

Brad - Give them their money back?

Susan - I've spent it. Do we want to be true to
what we intended to do all along or do we want
people to use the program? Those are the two
alternatives?

Mary - Well, no. I think that there is a compromise
in there where - where ...

. . . .

Betty - Well, I suppose the difficulty is that we're
trying to force teachers into a position of
reflection, force them into it, where they don't
want to be. They want to be told what to do.

Mary - I think that may be being . . .

Betty - Ideally you should be reflecting in the
whole thing, you know, every step of the way.

Mary - I think that may be being unfair. I
think that they're maybe saying, "There are parts
of it we feel we can reflect on, which are the
parts where we're actually working in the classroom
and making those kinds of decisions. And maybe
we can reflect on the principles, but we can't
generate them. You've got to give us a starting
place."

Betty - But they can also . . . .

Brad - We do eventually.

Mary - In fact we do anyway. And so that would lead
to a feeling of, "You've got the answers anyway.
Why the Hell didn't you just tell us?" I can see
that because we eventually come to saying, "Here
are some principles." I can see why people say,
"Well, why the devil didn't you tell us that in
the first place instead of making us go through this
whole thing?" You know, "If you've got a hidden agenda,
then why the devil don't you make it clear to us?"

Betty - What about the personal satisfaction that
someone in the in-service would get if their
criteria they had established or generated, or
whatever, agreed with the principles that you had
there? Wouldn't that mean . . .?

Brad - They would say, "We had this already. Why
bother?"

Mary - I think that if we can change our thinking
a little bit, so that we get them reflecting on
the thing that they obviously want to reflect on,
which is how you

Betty - Apply this stuff.

Mary - apply this. But we can extend that to
reflecting about why, why are we doing it?

Brad - Okay well . . .

Mary - Are the principles worth holding?

(Aug. 11, 1980)

Tom - Now the other piece of feedback that I guess
- and I don't know quite what to make of it - is that
business about the extent to which we're dependent
upon an inductive overall approach to it. What
do we do with that?? What do you think your
students were really saying about that?

Susan - They were saying that they wanted to be told
more, rather than having it come from them. They
were saying they didn't like using the inquiry
process to learn about the inquiry process.

Tom - See that was the thing that got us off to
this revision of it. Two things - one, it took so
long. And two - they seemed to be saying this sort
of thing. So then we changed it to that version, gave

it to John Black's class, and they're telling
us in spades, you know.

Brad - Well, let's go back to the original model.
Let's shorten it. Let's look at some other ways
of getting them involved in that induction thing that
are a little less painful.

(Aug. 26, 1980)

Ted - Yeah, it worries me, steps one and two.
Here I am coming to an in-service thing, assuming
the worst. I don't even understand the damn circle
in that book. So I'm coming along and one of the ways
to get into social issues is by using an Opener.
I don't know what an Opener is and the first thing
you're going to do is make me do one. And then
you're going to ask me the strengths of it and the
weaknesses of it, and the . . . .

Betty - No, no. We're going to tell you. We're
going to tell you in Step Two. We're not going
to ask you to generate. We decided we weren't
going to do that. Am I right?

Ted - What do you say?

Betty - Step Two, characteristics of an Opener will
be listed. We're not going to ask the teachers
to generate them. We're going to tell them then.

(August 27, 1980)

The program retained its inquiry orientation, with

modifications based on pilot feedback. The modifications

were focussed on Step Two. Using the Openers module as

an example, participants were originally asked to

generate criteria for a good Opener in Step Two, on the

basis of an experience with an Opener in Step One. This

was changed to providing them with a list of criteria

and asking them to evaluate the criteria by three means;

checking those which they considered to be most important,

adding to the list, and deciding which, if any, of the

criteria were met in the experience in Step One.

In the end, the basic format of the modules remained the same. However, what had originally been an implicit decision was made explicit through the re-examination which grew out of the response of participants in pilot sessions.

An issue which the developers never seemed quite able to resolve was just what was the role of ACCESS-TV. It was never quite clear just how much could be expected of that organization.

At first it seemed reasonably clear which tasks came within the realm of production and which were development.

The developers perceived their primary responsibility to be the generation of the print materials. A minor responsibility could involve making suggestions to ACCESS regarding the content of the media examples.

ACCESS's area of responsibility was to include the production of the media examples and the physical design, editting, presentation, and printing of the print materials.

> Mary - Well, we didn't make the decision really about how those things should be, but we just said, "This is what we want," and I understand that ACCESS Alberta will decide what's the best way to do that. So if they decide to put that on filmstrip, or whatever, and . . .
>
> Tom - Alright. I guess that's the thing. We decide on the samples to demonstrate and they decide on the ( ).
>
> Mary - We decide on what we think is important and then leave the technical problems to them.
>
> . . . .
>
> Ted - And it's a production problem, isn't it? It's not a developers' problem.
>
> . . . .
>
> (Visitor from Alta. Ed.) - I like Ted's attitude. ACCESS, as the production people, can solve it.

Ted - That's what they keep telling us.

Mary - It may end up being our problem anyway.

Tom - Well, eventually it comes down to a problem that's going to affect the quality and the credibility of what comes on tape before teachers all over this province. I don't think we can just ignore it and say, "That's too bad. It's not our problem. Let somebody else worry about that."

Mary - No, but Smith is the one who's always said . . .

Ted - Who's always said, Keep out of it."

Tom - I know that.

. . . .

Ted - But in a sense, Tom, I think what I'm saying anyway, is that we're, you know, it's been clearly spelled out in that production's production, development's development.

Mary - Spell out what it is we want and then let them worry about it. Then after that, then you negotiate for where you're at.

                              (April 11, 1980)

Later the lines of demarcation became fuzzier. In May, the developers were asked to generate lesson plans for the media components of the modules.

Betty - God, when I think of those early meetings when he was having fourteen hairies about - "Don't get involved in production!"

Tom - Those were the good old days.

Betty - Yes, weren't they.

. . . .

Brad - I think the modules remain the same, but we have got to go back through the modules and do the revisions.

Ted - Yes.

Brad - and specify the media, some media.

Mary - But that's what he kept insisting all along, we should not do. I could kill him. It was a heck of a lot easier to think about it when you're going through it the first time, than it is to think about it now.

. . . .

Mary - Well, I sure wish we'd known that from the beginning, because we've certainly wasted an awful lot of time ( ), you know, being told all along that we were not to concern ourselves with production. That's the one thing that's been made very specific.

. . . .

Brad - You see, he's assuming that a lot of this is going to be scripted, and that wasn't our desire.

Ted - That's a different ball game when you're writing scripts. I have no experience with scripts.

Tom - Well, these aren't scripts. If you look at them you'll see that they aren't scripts.

Ted - Yeah, but it's a whole different thing. I mean, it's a production thing.

Betty - I think we're all quite content not to get involved in the production. I don't think we saw ourselves as doing that. The development yeah, ... It was up to, I thought, up to ACCESS.

. . . .

Mary - He was saying, "It's none of your business how we design it."

Ted - "None of your business how we design it." But now, I don't know how you feel about it, but I would feel uncomfortable writing a script for t.v. I mean, I'm, that's not my, I haven't any expertise in that line.

. . . .

Betty - Do you think he's now realizing that what he said five months ago doesn't hold true - that he can't look after one section of it without needing us? Is he realizing now that he can't?

Ted - No, I personally . . .

Betty - He should have realized it five months ago.

Tom - I don't think there's - the only thing I can
think of that's changed is that his boss has
said to him - if we're going to pay them this much
money,

Susan - Make them do more work.

Tom - extract two pounds of flesh. That's the way
I read it. But I don't know.

. . . .

Mary - But to me it looks like all the ground rules
have shifted since we started this and that makes
me very uncomfortable.

(June 3, 1980)

While they had grumbled at ACCESS's earlier admonitions

to stay out of production, there was a certain security

involved in knowing the limits of one's obligations.

At this point, the developers were beginning to feel

uneasy in the face of what appeared to be an insidious

mushrooming of the expectations for their role. It

seemed that their responsibilities were beginning to

include not only what they perceived to be development,

but some aspects of production as well.

Ted - I don't know but I see no end, in a sense
I do see no end to it, because the next thing
they're going to say is "Yes, fine, now, you'd
better come along while we're filming it, and tell
the production guys what to do with their fingers,"
and then the pilotting thing, and then editting,
and you know, it just becomes mind boggling.

(June 3, 1980)

By August, the developers were still assuming that

ACCESS would take some responsibility for the presentation

of the print materials, although doubts were beginning

to surface.

Brad - You know, I looked at some of that Values
stuff and they have neat little things, where
there's a list of items and teachers went down and
they have some sticky gum paper and they pulled
off the ones that they thought were right. It's
gimmicky. But at least they aren't sitting there
filling out a workbook. It's that kind of assistance
I think we need to . . .

Tom - What do you mean, you hoped Smith would come
along?

Brad - Well, he kept jumping on it and saying,
"Write it and don't talk about it technically.
We'll look after the technical part of it."

Ted - He hasn't done anything technical yet.

Brad - Well, no!

Ted - Eight months for that.

Brad - And he seems to define their role much more
narrowly than I thought it was to . . .

. . . .

Susan - And he can help with another one that's
not there, don't you think? Making activities less
tedious, or however you want to say that.

Ted - Presenting them in a more attractive way.

Betty - The one that Brad called, "Clarifying
directions." Maybe we could zip that up a bit.
You know, pep it up with, "Do this, do that, swing
off the chandelier."

<div align="right">(Aug. 27, 1980)</div>

A concern with regard to piloting that was prevalent

throughout the project was that the pilot versions of the

modules did not accurately represent the modules as they

would appear when actually in use. Therefore, it seemed

that the pilot data being received was not as accurate as

it should be. ACCESS responded to this concern of the

developers and went into a classroom and filmed an Opener

for use during the piloting of this particular module.

Tom - Because it becomes obvious that ACCESS
figures they've done their bit. They got the
film for us. Now we can figure out what to do.

Betty - I think they're copping out, between you,
me and the doorpost.

Tom - Yes, that's sort of my perception too. I
told Sheridan that and I told Martin that and they
both said, "Oh."

Betty - Just, "Oh"?

(Oct. 6, 1980)

By November the developers were making conscious

efforts to limit their role to the contractual obligations.

Tom - I guess the thing I'm trying to find out is,
once we take these six over to ACCESS Monday, what is
our future involvement?

Brad - Okay, the role we carved out for ourselves
was minimal.

Tom - Like what?

Brad - Like, if we haven't made it clear what we
wanted, then they should be able to come and ask us.

Tom - Clarification.

Brad - Yeah.

Tom - Because in our contract it says, "Consultation
during production."

. . . .

Ted - That's what we want, to keep it consulting.
They were very much wanting us to have meetings
every Tuesday, every two weeks.

Brad - Bring Hugh in.

Ted - Bring Hugh in.

Brad - And sit down and go through

Ted - We'd all go through it.

Brad - this word by word. I'm not ready for that.
I don't know about you. I think we need somebody
from ACCESS, with some knowledge of production, to

sit down and read them, look at them, and come
back to us with some questions.

Tom - Clarification. So our role is clarification.
See, that's far different. We once suggested
that our role be lining up some classrooms and
teachers that we thought were strong, getting them
to teach a unit, and helping plan that unit so
that they would be exemplary lessons, showing
Openers, Organizing Data, the whole schmear. Now,
what I hear you saying is that we will have
nothing to do with the identification of
teachers . . .

Brad - No, I didn't say that. I just said that we
weren't going to go down and go through like we
did with the ad hoc committee with another committee,
and go through these things another five times,
another five revisions, to satisfy the production
people. I just - I don't know about you but I'm
not ready for that.

Tom - No, I don't see that either, but the
production role - it seems to me now that the
question is not the content of the modules.

Brad - Well, I don't think they're at that.

Ted - No, I think they still see that as part of
their role.

Brad - They see production as being able to
influence that - to be able to say to you, "That's
not - can't be there."

Ted - That's the way in which they . . .

Tom - Then what in the world have we been doing
playing games with this ad hoc committee!?

Brad - Well, you see, I see . . . . So we've
got the content in place. Now they'll tell us
how

Ted - How to go about it.

Brad - how much more should be there and . . .

Ted - See, now, I think ACCESS was trying to come
to that and I think the Department of Ed. was
trying to come to that yesterday.

Betty - Is this all stemming from Dave Phillips'
point that this should have taken a lot longer
than a year to do?

Brad - Ummm.

Betty - Is he trying to draw it out to three?

Brad - It's wrapped up with ACCESS. Dave is part
of it. There are two things going on at the
same time. Like Bill said, at any time, if we
had wanted technical help, it was available.

Ted - And, of course, we made the point that when
we got it it was totally useless. Then we had
to hear this business about well, they were only
rushes - bullrushes.

Brad - So we backed off as far as we could.

Ted - Our names are going to go on this however
it turns out.

Brad - Right, I'm sure we're going to be involved.
Let's give them six and get some reaction to it
before they start planning seventeen different
meetings once a week.

. . . .

Ted - Well, I guess I'm ready to say, "That PERT
Chart looks good to me. Let's get some timelines
in place so that we're not talking about dragging
this thing out for another three, four years getting
these crazy things produced."

. . . .

Tom - Are we going to go through that again?
Spelling out all those objectives of the Development
Document that meets the formal requirements rather
than having stuff that's been approved by the
ad hoc committee and that's ready to produce?

Brad - Well, I'm not.

Tom - I'm not either. I can't see playing that
game just to satisfy some peculiar penalty view of

Brad - Me either.

Tom - Smith.

(Nov. 14, 1980)

It is clear from the November 21st meeting, that the developers were still unsure about their role and that of ACCESS with regard to the print materials.

Tom - Could I clarify something that I thought we had agreed to? Things like this adding a line on top of Step One

Bill - Um hm.

Tom - to provide a little easier introduction into it. But, those kinds of things will, your staff can

Bill - Um hm.

Tom - deal with without necessarily feeling that we have to write out the words.

Bill - I'm not gonna, I'm not gonna come back to you and ask you to uh,

Brad - Write a sentence.

Bill - uh, rewrite every line or change this, uh, uh, find the missing comma or . . .

Tom - Okay.

Ted - So you guys are gonna do it.

Bill - Yeah.

. . . .

Betty - It could change the whole philosophy.

Bill - Right. If there's something that we can't figure out, or we are unsure about what the sequence is, or any of those kinds of things, we'll have to come back.

Tom - Oh, sure, by all means.

. . . .

Brad - I'm still, I'm still curious as to what's going on.

Bill - Yeah.

Brad - I thought that when we gave this to you, to
ACCESS, what we'd get back from you would be an
indication. You told us we weren't to specify the
kind of media.

Bill - Yeah.

Brad - That you would have someone read that and
come back to us and say, "We think you should show
these demonstrations

Bill - Yes.

Brad - using this." And then along with that you
would produce, come back and say, "Given your
description, we need answers to these kinds of
questions."

Bill - Yes.

Brad - I thought that's what we would be doing today.

Bill - Yes, and that's why I would like to have as
many of the modules as I can get now, and the rest
of them as quickly as possible so that we can do
precisely that.

. . . .

Bill - Wait a minute. Let's remember one thing. We're
all ACCESS, eh? Go away, Alberta Education (said in
a joking manner to the Alta. Ed. representative who
was present).

(Nov. 21, 1980)

This is another example of the confusion in roles, as

the developers certainly did not consider themselves to be

part of ACCESS. Mr. Smith was probably referring here to

the fact that the developers were contracted to ACCESS.

The dilemma rages on.

Ted - Because in a way, not that I'm opposed to us
going into classrooms and filming, you know, but
it seems to me it's another dilemma that we can get
ourselves into, where they keep wanting more of it.
You know, that's the way this project seems to have
gone, like uh, you know, we tacked Appendix A on just
as a sort of an afterthought, you know, it just got

stuck onto Openers because we, we found out where all the Openers were. But the expectation became that we would do that. And then once they got that expectation, then one of the expectations was that we would then develop another Appendix, Appendix B of other resources that might be useful. So it seems that if we get into that business of being on film a great deal, well, maybe we're the subjects that they would film for their demos. And I don't know whether we want to go that far or not. Maybe it's a scenario that really I shouldn't be thinking of. But it seems to me that we always go the extra mile. I'm not opposed to it, but it . . .

Brad - I'd still like us to go over there and try it with those kids just because we've got the

Ted - Equipment.

Brad - Yes.

(Jan. 22, 1981)

On Feb. 11th the developers held a short meeting before a second meeting which was held with two ACCESS representatives. The meeting with ACCESS was for the purpose of helping to generate some ideas as to ways of making the print materials more appealing.

Tom - ( ) any of us who were available could brainstorm ( ). It just burned me up because the role definitions here are getting pretty strange.

. . . .

Tom - But, anyway, it sounds to me like he's depending on us to be the idea generators and hoping that we can use a couple of hours this morning to go through some of the modules, and I guess look particularly at Step One and Two, and see what sorts of things can be done to provide some variation, novelty, adding some interest, writing some different forms of activity than small group discussion, writing down your answers.

Brad - What happened to that - they were going to rewrite all of this material?

Tom - (Laughter) You dream, young Bradley!

Ted - Yeah, but that was the idea in November. They
were gonna look over these materials. They were
going to have an editor or edit the stuff. That
was four months ago.

Tom - Four months ago is not today. El cheapo!
- is what they've become it seems to me. Minimal
investment is how they'll do it. That's the way
it sounded to me on the phone.

. . . .

Ted - You know, I hate to, it sounds like I'm
laying blame on people, or on ACCESS in particular,
. . . We went out and we shot the stuff on Resolving
the Issue. Um, what we really needed was more of
that sort of stuff and I don't know as it's the
responsibility of the development team to be doing
that.

. . . .

Susan - Maybe we should, before February 27th, make
whatever adjustments we're going to make on the
basis of this feedback from these pilots, take the
time to go through every single module, proof-read
them, and look for consistency and so on, and then
just say, "Okay, we've done everything we're going
to do. We've gone through every single module. We've
responded to the feedback. Here it is." Otherwise,
if we don't have something finished to take the
27th, then it's going to continue to go on and on
forever. Because then they're going to give us more
feedback at the meeting.

. . . .

Ted - Deadlines - they've got so as they're almost
meaningless.

. . . .

Tom - January 1st meant something.

Brad - What?! What did November, when we went
roaring in the car across to ACCESS with those damn
modules under our arm? What did that mean? They
had to have them that minute if they were going
to read them. And we sat in that meeting over there
and those guys talked about the, putting two guys on
it right away.

. . . .

Tom - Generating plans for those videotape
demonstrations. Those were provided to them and
they accepted them and that's done. It seems to
me that if we can hand something to them by
March 1st, that they are reasonably content with,
that that also will end, and I guess I am getting
to the point where I'd be sort of happy to feel
that there was a piece of this thing that was
ended . . .

Brad - That's the point.

Tom - Okay, and I guess what Susan is saying seems
reasonable to me too, that, prior to March 1st, go
through the feedback stuff, we try and identify
things that seem reasonable to modify, incorporate
those modification in it, proof-read the stuff, send
it over to them, and say, "Folks, that is it. If
you want more done, you do it." That sounds good
to me. I can see two weeks away, being, having
this behind me.

Brad - Well, I wish I was as optimistic.

Susan - Yeah, it's hard to be.

Brad - It really is.

Susan - We've said this before, haven't we - that
it's going to be all over by Christmas, or it's going
to be all over by such and such.

. . . .

Brad - . . . the end of the month will come and Dave
will be back with six more requests and ACCESS will
have done four things less than they said they would
do and we'll be right back.

. . . .

Brad - I'm telling you. I'm really finished with it.
I think that we've been run around and kicked and
put off, and everybody talks about doing work and, uh, you
know who ends up doing it. Not them! ACCESS in
particular. And if Bill Smith is here this morning
I think we should very gently tell him that.

Tom - I can hardly wait.

Susan - Does it have to be gentle?

. . . .

Betty - Well, the people who are in charge of
this project don't give a damn, like the Dept. of
Education and ACCESS-Television. We're running
around like chickens with our heads cut off, doing
all this stuff in our time, and who cares?

. . . .

Ted - I think they, you know, the problem I'm
having is we keep doing, we keep going the extra
yard.

. . . .

Ted - We went out and filmed Resolving the Issue.

Betty - Not to mention that stuff with Judy. We
were there.

Ted - But, you see, ACCESS should be doing that.

. . . .

Ted - This, it seems to have become like Topsy.
It keeps growing and growing and growing and it
doesn't look like any end's in sight. I wouldn't
mine if Topsy ended up by looking like Brooke
Shields, but she's beginning to look like a
monster.

                                        (Feb. 11, 1981)

In the second meeting of the morning the developers

reiterated their expectation that ACCESS would undertake the

task of presenting the activities described in print, in

a variety of interesting and creative ways.

Tom - That's one of the things that we had, all along
an expectation that ACCESS's role was going to be,
was a contribution of some creativity to these
things - to look at Step One activities and say,
"Gee, this is exactly like Step One in the previous
one. Can't we add a little pizazz by . . .?"
That, I guess, is what we had anticipated would
be done, and then, that this period of time now would
be when the ACCESS people could bring their brilliant
ability to generate creative ideas to bear on these
modules, and invest some originality, add some
variety and sparkle.

Bill - Well, gee, uh, that's pretty tall, uh, uh, anyway ( ).

Tom - Well, that's what ACCESS is all about. Gee, we've written up the modules. Is that the end of it? ACCESS's role is simply to put the damn things ( ).

Bill - That's sort of, that's sort of the mandate that we have from Alberta Education. Any time we've tried to, uh, well, one of the major criticisms that our political leaders, uh, uh, level at us is that we're too "Hollywood" - that we put too much, um, uh, gold-plate on the armour plating of it.

. . . .

Tom - I guess I was sort of wondering how you see your role in the print material.

Karen - I have no role at all with the print material.

Bill - No.

Tom - Who does?   (Exasperation in voice)

Bill - I do. I get it pushed through our Information Services part, area, to get it designed and printed up. That, you don't you're unhappy with that, Tom, in what?

Tom - Not unhappy that you're the person who's associated with it at all. But what, I sort of get the feeling that there's no ACCESS commitment to try and, to have some impact on the quality of print material, and that bothers me. That was not my understanding ever, from the very beginning of this thing. And I saw the relationship between developers and ACCESS as being we generate ideas

Bill - Um hm.

Tom - and develop some content or materials, and then ACCESS takes those ideas and content and translates them into materials that will be attractive to teachers and interesting, have some creative elements in the design. We've never seen ourselves - and I guess I can honestly say - we never saw ourselves as being overly emphasizing the creative ingredients

Bill - Um.

Tom - in the design of these things. We think there's some pretty good content there, but

Bill - Right.

Tom - in terms of presentation, um, we haven't really directed a great deal of our efforts in . . .

(Feb. 11, 1981)

For the first time on tape, the representative from

ACCESS clearly outlined its position with regard to this

issue.

Bill - Um, okay, I see. I-I-I get what you're getting at and it could be possible for - okay. We, uh, what we have available, what we have available is the, um, services of our Design and Art Graphics Department. Uh, we also have, uh, our Editor, but that editing is primarily to make sure that all the dot, the t's are dotted and the i's are crossed, well, whatever. And that we don't have, uh, any additional writing, uh, new copy of new written information available. That, uh, that fact is part of our, um, expectations of the developers, that we're getting uh, the material, uh, from the developers, would be sanctioned, uh, from Alberta Education, that that's the copy that's wanted. Then our designers are - our Editor will ensure that the words are grammatically correct, etc., etc. The designer will work on the, um, overall out - format, outline, typeset, layout, of the print materials. Uh, some of these things are going to be possible to be added in there, but if we're being asked to write new copy for this Step One, that's not going to be possible.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

The developers' discouragement is evident in this

February 15th meeting.

Tom - Well, what are we doing today? We're going to go through these things and try to build some of this stuff in?

Susan - No, that's Bill Smith's part, isn't it?

Tom - You must not have heard his response when I
asked him what he saw happening next, now that we
had this list on the board. And you didn't hear
what he said?

. . . .

Tom - Well, now you guys better take these ideas
and try and incorporate them into Step One. And
then when they come over to us, why we'll, we'll try
and make it look attractive.

. . . .

Ted - You see, the first question, like the clarify of
directions, you know, a good editor could tidy that up.

Tom - We aren't going to get any good editting outside
this room. If you think that Bill Smith is going to
edit, why you're telling him to do something he has no
intention of doing. I think he made that clear.

Betty - He sees his role simply as producing this,
doesn't he? That was the distinct impression I got
last week.

Tom - Paying the bill. That's their main task - pick
up the tab.

Ted - We've gone this one so many times, haven't we?

. . . .

Tom - I suppose that's one of the things that I'd sort
of hoped that ACCESS would contribute to this - dress
it up a little bit and help to make it more palatable,
more visually appealing and interesting. And that's
one of the things on our list over there to do.

. . . .

Brad - Now he's starting to be creative.

Betty - Why are we worrying about this? He was supposed
to be doing all the creative thinking.

Ted - He's done a lot. He did a hell of a lot.

Betty - Who, Bill?

Ted - Bill.

Betty - Bill Smith?

Ted - Sure, he did.

Betty - What did he do?

Ted - He was creative enough to make us do it.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

Upon seeing two women shouting at each other across a narrow street, from the windows of their homes, Sydney Smith, the eighteenth-century English essayist, is said to have commented, "These women will never agree; they are arguing from different premises." This comment perhaps best sums up the relationship between the developers and ACCESS.

The developers began with the idea that their role was to primarily involve generation of the print materials. They would also make suggestions to ACCESS regarding the content of the media examples. ACCESS was responsible for the production of the media examples and the design, editting, and printing of the print materials.

In the end, the developers wrote, pilotted, revised, and editted the print materials. They wrote, filmed, and editted demonstration lessons to be used in pilot sessions. They wrote lesson plans for the final media components and consulted during production. ACCESS produced the media examples and did some editting and revision of the print materials.

Part of the confusion over what tasks were a part of the developers' responsibility stemmed from the fact that two separate short-term contracts were involved, rather

than one contract for the entire project. The second

contract was not signed until June 24th, 1980. The first

contract did not mention any responsibility with regard

to the media component of the program. Consequently, when

it became clear, in May, that ACCESS had this expectation,

it came as somewhat of a surprise.

Also, the developers were under the impression, for

many months, that ACCESS would vary the presentation of the

activities so that they would not all involve pencil and

paper. When they saw that this was not going to happen,

their disappointment was great.

Furthermore, the developers were concerned about the

quality of the modules which they had to pilot. It was

their opinion that the media component should have been a

part of the pilot modules, in order to give them a fair

test. ACCESS was willing only to generate one media example

for pilot purposes, so the developers readied others

themselves. This involved a great deal of work and was

a source of some resentment.

An issue which was readily resolved was concerned with

whether or not to have each teacher choose between two modules

dealing with the same inquiry skill, according to his or

her preferred teaching style (teacher-directed or teacher-

student shared decision-making) or to have aspects of each

teaching style in one module.

The Mentor Proposal had outlined the first alternative

described above. However, by April, the modules thus far

developed had used the second alternative.

The discussion in this meeting (April 11, 1980) makes evident that this decision was at first implicit. The change from two modules to one for each skill seemed to occur without thought. The decision only became explicit as it was debated during this meeting.

The transcript excerpt begins with a reference to a thesis proposal written by one of the developers. The thesis was to be concerned with the Mentor Project.

Tom - There's one more decision that, as I read through Susan's proposal, I guess, was nagging me a bit, and that is the business about - we started out with a rationale that emphasized giving teachers some decision-making role in this, and part of it was based on setting up a self-awareness activity that would try to help them reflect on the extent to which they seem to be a teacher-directive role or a shared teacher-student decision-making role. Out of that, I thought the original conception of this thing was that that should provide a basis for the teacher, then, making some decisions for herself about what materials she wanted to use . . . . We seem to be planning modules which are not reflecting that teacher choice initially about what pattern she wants to look at; but are saying, "Here, look at both," anytime that you pick up one of those modules and you go through it.

Susan - It's interesting that you bring that up. When Isabel asked me at the proposal presentation how it was organized, I said how we had originally intended - that we were going to have separate modules for each type

Tom - I heard you.

Susan - and all this and then I started to think - well, really, that's not what we're doing, but oh well, I won't go into that here.

Mary - Well, this came out of the first, this change in direction, came out of developing the Opener, wasn't it? We found it very, very difficult to try to identify ways of developing Openers without an

actual situation right there in front of us. That was part of the problem. We kept saying, "It's very, very difficult for us to think of how you could develop a module without having a group of children there."

Tom - Yes.

Mary - Okay. So I guess that decision was made that it would - it would probably be easier to get the continuum of experience within the same module, which seems to me what we've been doing in the four modules that we've developed to this point. Now, that raises a question, though, or a point, and that is perhaps at the end of each module we might ask the teachers to reflect on what, which of these they felt most comfortable with, or which one they felt they might use, or to turn it back on them in some way.

Tom - So I think you, in yours you had them plan one of each.

Mary - Yeah.

Tom - And then what you're saying makes sense - look at what we've got planned - which would you be most comfortable using with your students? I like that.

Mary - Well, that's another part of what the module might do, then, kind of, Tom, it would, the format of the module might then have a final section which had teachers address themselves to - how can teachers operate in organizing data, analyzing data - which way is most appropriate for you? Do you know why you think that? Do you know why you feel that way?

Mary - As long as it's there at some point, that they are reflecting on this continuum. So instead of having separate modules, one that looks at this from the point of view of teacher presenter and another that looks at shared decision-making, we have one module, and that part of the process is to be sure to look at the fact that people operate in different ways or different positions.

(April 11, 1980)

In the end, the reflection on the fact that teachers operate in different ways in the classroom, was built primarily into Step Four, which involved viewing and analyzing two classroom demonstrations. The demonstrations were analyzed in terms of the role of the teacher and that of the students. Participants were asked to mark

on a continuum where they considered each demonstration
to fall.

A sixth major issue was concerned with where to obtain
the content for the classroom experiences to be shown on
videotape. The decision that the content was to be taken
from the Kanata Kits or Teaching Units (materials developed
by Alberta Education) was made by the ad hoc advisory
committee or by Alberta Education unilaterally, and the
developers were informed of the verdict. The developers
never presented a strong case against this, however much
they grumbled among themselves. (Also see Nihilism
section.)

Brad - I looked at one of the Taba ones the
other day. I looked at last night's . . .

Tom - Oh, geez.

Brad - Hm?

Tom - I used one of the Taba examples in
Synthesizing Data or one of those and they
clobbered me over the head with it.

Brad - Why?

Tom - It was not out of a Kanata Kit or Teaching
Unit.

. . . .

Betty - So, if we're going to videotape a classroom,
it has to be something out of a Kanata Kit or a
Teaching Unit.

Tom - Hopefully.

Betty - I understood it had to be.

Tom - Bill was going to find a class that was
using a Teaching Unit or Kanata Kit and he would go
in and

> Ted - And say, "Now we want you to be a
> teacher-director."
>
> Tom - film the, film the data gathering activity
> or other bits and pieces.
>
> (Aug. 27, 1980)

These, then, were the major issues dealt with by
the developers. They were at the heart of the decision-
making process involved in the development of the Mentor
Project. Most of them were not easily resolved.
Several only reached resolution after the passage of
a great deal of time. For instance, the issue concerning
the role of a leader persisted for about fourteen months,
almost the entire development period.

The decisions based on these issue became part of
what Walker calls the "explicit" design of the program.
That is, the decisions were made with forethought
and after a consideration of alternatives. There
is another design as well, the "implicit" design,
which is based on decisions which have been made
automatically, without consideration of alternatives.
The number of implicit decisions is endless. One
example, in the Mentor Project, would be the decision
to make the modules uniform in format. The developers
engaged in no lengthy weighing of alternatives with
regard to this decision. It simply seemed to happen.
The first module was developed around a particular format,
and the others followed.

Organization

Organization, as the name suggests, is an episode concerned with organizational matters, those tasks devoted to keeping things running smoothly.

The following example of an organization segment is taken from the first part of a meeting, as a newly written module is handed out to members of the committee for their reactions.

Tom - Do you guys want to put those three sheets you've just received in this module where they're supposed to go?

Betty - Oh, right.

Tom - No, no, they're not the last three. That would make it too easy.

Betty - Oh.

Tom - What does one of them say - Openers?

Betty - Openers Found in Both the Teaching Units.

Tom - That's page 14. Openers, page 14, goes right towards the end. What's another one?

Betty - Looks as if there was a three on the other page because this one says Number 4.

Susan - I didn't get that one.

Tom - What, this?

Susan - Yeah.

Tom - There's one that has a blank.

Hugh (Visitor) - Here's Susan's copy. I probably have Susan's copy.

Tom - We need five copies.

Hugh - Well, there's six people though. Okay, so give Susan that.

Tom - I've got my original too. That makes six.

Susan - Here, this is it.

Tom - This page then, that has three blanks at the top and "Openers

Brad - Yes?

Tom - should gain the attention and interest of students" - that's Page 8. I - you - go from Page 14 that you put in and move backwards.

Brad - There's an 8 here.

Betty - There's an 8 here already, but it's not right?

Tom - I guess not. This is the one that comes right before 9. (Laughter)

Betty - Gee, that's nice.

Tom - Well, I'm sorry. She didn't have time to get this done.

Betty - I'm just kidding.

Brad - The more you hassle him, the less time you're going to have to hassle me.

Tom - Alright. Did you find it? There

Betty - No, eight.

Tom - Find nine. It goes before nine.

Betty - Oh, oh, oh, this nine. The old nine.

Tom - Okay?

Betty - And this one goes . . .

Tom - I have just one more page. Lord knows where it goes.

(July 28, 1980)

Presentation

Another type of episode, not included by Walker, will be called a presentation. This was a common episode over the course of the Mentor Project. It involved the presentation of a module, or a piece of a module, to the rest of the

committee, by the individual, or subgroup, who had worked
on it. It involved not only the actual presentation but
questions and comments and the responses to them.

This excerpt involves a report on a revision of the
Historical Documents module.

Susan - Also, if they're going to take them away
to use in their own class, they would want to
know who they are. So then we're going to - the
idea is that - one of the sources of information
for the cards was biographies, and, what, going back
to what historical documents might biographers have
used - that's just an opening activity. Part Two
puts it into the inquiry process. And Part Three
- going back to the objectives - the idea is to
demonstrate that as history is passed down, it can
become modified. And they're going to take part
in that game, you know, where they sit in the circle
and the message goes around the circle, and the first
individual writes it down. Okay, "What happened
to the final message?" And, hopefully, they will
draw a relationship between historical messages
and the game. Then, that next thing, I took out of an
article by Ian Wright, in "Horizon."

Tom - Where are you?

Susan - I'm going onto the next one. So that builds
with the next objective - 3b - "To demonstrate the
differences between primary and secondary sources."
Now, I don't think - this was printed in a newspaper,
but, you know, it's not the satire. I just put that
in. ( ) You can comment on that. The newspaper
articles are the same as they were. I tried to get
some other ones yesterday. I got the "Globe and Mail"
and a bunch of things, but there really wasn't
anything. But today, because of the meeting, today
there might be some good articles tonight, I'm hoping.
These are alright, but I don't think they show the
difference that clearly. That's to demonstrate that
and then the newspaper articles are to demonstrate
that 3c - that there are various interpretations of
what ( ). When you look at the three articles, and
then look at the differences in the way in which the
situation is reported, and then, if ten years from
now, someone who wished to find out about the event,
read Article three, how would that person's perspective
on the event, differ from someone who read two, and
what are some reasons for these differences?

Brad - ( ) Maybe again. If you follow "Alberta
Report" see how they treat it. "Edmonton Sun" and
"The Journal" - there should be three.

Susan - Well, I bought the "Globe and Mail," the "Sun,"
"The Journal," . . . (End of side on tape recorder)
But, you know, I don't really want to comment, do I?
I want a report that's supposed to be objective, to
show that even supposedly objective reports can
differ, because a columnist, now if I could go that
route, would be fairly easy. But it seems to me that
probably is not appropriate. Okay, and then the
next one - the objective, was to demonstrate that
historical accounts may contain important omissions.

Mary - Susan, just to back up a minute. I don't know
if that's right, whether, whether, you have to just
take the

Susan - So-called objective?

Mary - So-called objective. You just want to show that
an event which is supposedly an objective event can
be seen differently from different points of view.
So maybe you don't need, maybe it doesn't need to be
just the newspaper.

Susan - Or just an article. It could be a columnist.

Mary - Yeah, if that will show the different, the
difference in perspectives in interpretation.

Susan - Well, what do you think? I do want to show
that even though the so-called - we're supposedly
given a firsthand account of an event, you know, as
an observer, a direct observer, even that, certain
biases come into it. Whereas a columnist, that's
supposed to be biased. He's expressing his biases.

Mary - Okay. But I'm saying that even, you know,
like if you can't get that, then maybe you could
just take ( ) because, in a sense they are still
first-hand accounts of an event.

                                        (July 31, 1980)

Update

   A third type of episode found in the Mentor tapes will

be called update. The update involved a reminder, by

one or more members, to the others, of what had been

accomplished to date, and sometimes, a listing of what

had yet to be done.

    During this discussion, (May 13, 1980) the following chart was being put on the blackboard in the meeting room.

Done	To Revise	To Draft
Map Reading - B & S	Part 1 - Brad	Historical Documents - B & S
Surveying - B & S	Openers - TF	Interviewing - S & B
	Analyzing - TF	Valuing - M & B
	Synthesizing - M & T	Evaluating - T & B
	Applying - T & T	Deciding - M & B
	Evaluating - T & B	
	Organizing - M & T	

Tom - What I was going to try to do was just to jot down where we are. We've got - I believe the way things are now is that the Map Reading and the Surveying are pretty well accepted as they stood. We didn't get any feedback saying, "You must make these kinds of changes." So, while we may want to do some polishing, I don't think that we have direction from the committee that we must. Then we have revisions to make on that first one - what did we wind up calling that - the very first piece where we lay out the different teacher roles and ( )?

Mary - Didn't we call that Part One?

Tom - Part One and Openers. What's the next one after Openers? Data Gathering.

. . . .

Tom - Synthesizing.

Susan - There is a typed copy.

Tom - It's pretty well finished, is it?

Susan - Yes, but it doesn't specify the videotapes.

Tom - It's never been presented to that committee.

Susan - No.

Betty - When you say, "Evaluating," in the "To Draft" column, you mean more modules? They want it expanded to more modules?

Tom - Well, they - they want us to come back to them with more. Now, I don't think that they've necessarily said that it had to be in separate modules.

Betty - But expanded that module.

Tom - But there's got to be something more drafted on Evaluation than we have carried to them; and they're not talking about just a revision. They're talking about a marked - additional content being planned for that section.

. . . .

Tom - Because in terms of how much time it takes to go through that module, it's a reasonable piece. But they want more and they made that very clear. So, in terms of, I guess of people going to do some of these tasks - Brad is going to work on this one.

Mary - So the decision now is whether the valuing and the social action go as one module?

Tom - No, we've got the Applying module that Bryan and I worked on - which is the social action piece, and we're obligated to produce a module that focuses on valuing. And I guess we're obligated to produce something on deciding.

(May 13, 1980)

Invention

Another type of episode will be called invention. This involved the actual production of materials.

Walker distinguishes between production and discussion, turning his attention to discussion. The modus operandi of the Kettering Project, which he studied, was such that committee members would produce lessons

individually or in small groups and then bring them to the meetings for discussion. Mentor operated in much the same manner, in that most of the actual production of materials was carried on outside of meetings. However, first drafts of materials were often developed in the meetings so that everyone could reach agreement on the format that would be followed for other materials. Also, some revision work was carried out during meeting time.

This excerpt involves the production of a new section of the Openers module.

> Betty - Okay, well, what I'm going to do for the purposes of now is leave a few lines there. "What issues might this film raise?"
>
> Brad - Do you want to give them an example?
>
> Ted - Sure - e.g.
>
> Betty - E.G.
>
> Brad - Let's put that in a format. "Should" - something. I wish I could remember more about the film.
>
> Tom - "Should nations resort to war to solve - to resolve - issues?"
>
> Brad - That would be the easiest one. We can come up with one that's different than the easiest one.
>
> Betty - I'm trying to remember what the film was all about. Should . . .
>
> Tom - The guy and his neighbour squabbling over - to start off, at least.
>
> Betty - Starts off with two guys scrabbling over whose property is the flower on.
>
> Ted - "Should neighbours resolve differences by violence?" - or something. I don't know if that's one of the things we've alluded to before. Maybe that's too much like the one about war.

Betty - Maybe . . .

Brad - And what are you going to ask them? And, so
instead of asking them to generate the questions,
um . . .

Betty - We're asking them to isolate an issue, one
issue. I think the next question will be, um, uh
. . .

Ted - Well, what research questions?

Betty - Well, we've said "issues." We've got a
lot of issues. We're hoping they might generate
a few issues.

Ted - Okay. "Select one issue."

Betty - "Select."

Ted - "Develop." And "create." That might be
better than "develop."

Betty - I'm going to word this e.g. thing, "Should
neighbours solve conflict by quarrelling?" or
what would be a better word? "Should neighbours
solve conflict by violence?"

Ted - Yeah, for the moment.

Betty - "Violence," for the moment, okay. "Select
one issue and

Tom - "List some of the things you need to find out."

Brad - "to resolve the issue."

Betty - "List some questions" - "things"?

Tom - "things you need to find out."

Betty - "Some things you would," - I'd rather use
information - "you would need"

Brad - "to help resolve the issue."

Betty - "in order to help resolve the issue." Okay?
That was . . . Any more questions on this bit?

Tom - Give them some blanks headed by the title . . .

Brad - "Research Questions."

Betty - Oh, you mean where it says, "Select one issue and list some of the things you would need to help resolve the issue"? That bit?

. . . .

Tom - Well, in that film there, in this Opener, what are the alternative positions?

Betty - Well, I don't remember the details of the film, but I do remember . . .

Tom - It shows the two guys squabbling over a flower and they wind up knocking the tar out of each other.

Betty - Yeah, because they have opposing views on what should be done about it.

Susan - Maybe it shows the difference of competing positions on resorting to violence versus resorting to other means to solve conflict.

Betty - They each try to solve the problem in different ways.

Susan - Do they? Or do they both just resort to violence?

Betty - I can't remember.

Tom - They begin knocking the tar out . . .

Ted - Okay, well, if you go through it and the first one I can see that one . . . to feel concern as to the solution of the problems, some emotional response. You won't have too much trouble with that one.

. . . .

Betty - But you're remembering different than me, Tom. I think they do different things at first in trying to resolve the problem. I seem to remember them running in and out of the house doing different things and finally, they get into punching each other and then the house gets destroyed, the fence gets destroyed, and the flower dies. But other things that go on, other problem-solving things that go on before that, like one tries this thing, and the other trying that. I don't rember what they tried, but don't they do that? Or am I remembering it wrongly?

Tom - I don't remember that, but it's been too long since I've seen it to remember the details.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

Plausibility Structures

A large proportion of the Mentor data was suitable for categorization into deliberative episodes. However, there was a social aspect to portions of the transcripts which seemed to transcend these categories. The concept of "plausibility structures" (Berger, 1969; Werner, 1977) seemed appropriate to these data. Berger and Werner outline a number of plausibility structures. Three were chosen as appropriate to the Mentor data. These were legitimations, appeals to significant others and nihilism.

Legitimations

Legitimations are explanations "designed to convince people that what they are being told to do is not only the prudent thing, but also the only right and salutary one" (Berger, 1969, p. 44). Legitimations can be used not only to convince others, but to convince oneself. This is the way in which they were used by the Mentor developers.

According to Walker, "to be constrained by circumstances is the curriculum designer's strongest possible justification, for then he has no genuine choice " (1971, p. 55). The developers used these appeals to circumstances to justify or "legitimize" certain outcomes, usually undesirable.

In the case of the pilotting of the Mentor modules, the negative feedback from teachers was legitimized by reference to the following circumstances:

1. The pilot modules did not contain the videotape portion which was to be in the final version.

Brad - Well, I guess, you know, I still have the
same concern. We designed those seven or eight
steps, whatever we ended up with, with a
variety of, uh, techniques in mind - that they
would be involved, see some pieces, and we'd work
on some pieces, and they'd share with others.
And I don't think we've ever really tested that
model out.

. . . .

Ted - The difficulty I have with the pilot - it's
like, if you can imagine Toyota demonstrating their
cars, or field-testing, without the motor. That
might not be fair, but I think so. It seems to me
that Step Three is such a crucial component.

Brad - When you look at, yeah, and that's - I
do too.

Susan - For motivation and understanding.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

2. Very early in the development process, the ad hoc
advisory committee had given the developers the direction
that the in-service modules were to be able to stand on
their own. They were to be self-directing enough that a
teacher could take a module and use it independently.

Hand in hand with this direction was the decision
that in-service participants would learn by doing. Therefore,
rather than having a leader tell them about the inquiry
process, they would learn about it by using it themselves.

As a result, the teachers and the developers came to
the pilot sessions with widely different expectations as
to their respective roles.

The teachers arrived with the expectation, based on
previous in-service experiences, that there would be a
leader who would direct them through the session, and who
would, by implication, take on the responsibility for its
success or failure.

The developers came with the expectation that participants would take on a great deal of responsibility for shaping the in-service session. The developers would act as facilitators, rather than leaders. This caused some confusion.

> Betty - They didn't understand that the purpose of this for them was to learn the process of social inquiry. Because the girl, Rita brought up this business of, you know, teachers are being flooded with in-service, a lot of razzle-dazzle, da da da da da, and our stuff was very tame by comparison. And I said, "Well, maybe the intent of it is different. It's not to razzle-dazzle you or to teach you a new, you know, a Language Arts program, or something like that. It's to teach you a process that you will need to know in order to teach it to your students." So she said, "Oh, I wish that someone had told us that before. That makes sense."

> . . . .

> Betty - We explained that the modules were supposed to be as self-directed as possible because the ad hoc Committee were (sic) considering every possible use that could be made of them in the province. And that they couldn't depend on a leader. Nobody'd told them that before. They were depending - we saw that right at the beginning, didn't we - they were looking to us all the time for leadership. "What do we do now? What do we do next?"

> (Feb. 11, 1981)

3. Teachers brought a negative attitude toward social studies to the pilot sessions.

> Brad - A lot of it depends on the conditions - a whole bunch depends on the conditions under which the workshop is held.

> Bill - Um hm.

> Brad - The people there were . . .

> Tom - The frame of mind that they come there

Bill - Oh yeah.

Tom - has a lot to do with it.

Brad - As soon as they ( ) you may as well pack it
up and go home.

. . . .

Betty - We were having a general brainstorming at
the end and uh, I asked if I felt that, if they
felt that before anybody came to any of these that
they should be familiar with the Teaching Units and
Kanata Kits at their grade level. Maybe only
have read them, if nothing else. And they just
went, they just went, "Uhh? You're kidding! Read
all of that? Forget it!" So, in other words, we're
defeated in that sense if we're going to assume
that these people come knowing a topic already,
knowing an issue, any of that kind of stuff, because
they said flatly, "We're not going to read all
that stuff."

(Feb. 11, 1981)

Tom - Part of the dilemma, it seems to me - I'd
like to see us have an in-service program that was
effective, that would accomplish our goal, and I
feel badly about something going out that was gonna
be a miserable failure. When after doing a couple,
the teachers' attitudes are so negative toward it,
that . . .

Ted - But, in a sense, I don't really, I really
don't think, I think you have to go beyond their
attitudes towards this. I think their whole attitude
toward - like the comment that we kept getting was
that - you know, "We're being in-serviced to death."

Susan - It wasn't that so much, Ted, I thought, as
this whole general attitude. They're negative towards
the social studies curriculum, they're negative towards
everything that's been going on in this province in
social studies for the last few years. They seem to
be very negative towards Alberta Ed. and they see this
in-service as part and par . . ., like Rita saw this
in-service as part and parcel of the whole thing.

Tom - Of course, Alice insists that the staff are
typical of the teachers that she goes out to work with.

Susan - Um hm. That could be.

Tom - That, that's the way it is out there. I mean, if you're going to design an in-service program, you better have in mind, the nature of your clientele.

Susan - Um hm.

. . . .

Susan - See, the point - okay, that Grade Five class on the videotape were deciding - Should Canada and the United States become one? Well, that got them off too, because then they started in on the curriculum and its expectations, you know. And so, "How can Grade Fives - I can't even make a decision like that. How can Grade Five students make that decision? So I fin - finally had to say, "Well, let's, we have our doubts and concerns too. Let's try to put that aside for now and just look at the in-service and is it trying to deal with these things? Well, just look at the in-service itself. It's because they're not happy with the curriculum. Of course this is all part and parcel of the same thing, and so, naturally, they have problems with the in-service and everything. It's all part of the same . . .

Tom - Whole attitude.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

4. Pilot teachers had no choice as to the modules

in which they would participate. This was unrealistic, since

when the program actually came into use, teachers would

choose the specific modules in which they would become

involved.

Tom - The problem was they didn't choose . . .

Susan - Exactly. The way we had originally set this up, is they would have chosen that. And, obviously, they wouldn't have chosen Surveys in the first place unless they were interested in doing it with their class at some point.

Tom - Right.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

5. Pilot teachers had so many in-service sessions to attend that participation in the pilot sessions was perceived by them to be an undesirable burden.

> Ted - Well, like two of them, who had been at the one that Betty and I went to, they came in, and they said, "We won't be here today. We're sorry, but uh, there's another in-service that we have to attend." Uh, some meeting, some . . .
>
> Betty - I can sympathize to a certain extent.
>
> Ted - And, uh, . . .
>
> Betty - They had a bulletin board up behind us with
>
> Ted - Yeah.
>
> Betty - in-services for the month of February and there were dozens!
>
> Ted - The in-service calendar was not quite that thick. I'd say half that thick though, wouldn't you?
>
> Betty - Um hm.
>
> Ted - That's just for the month of February! Now, that's throughout the whole system. It's true. So it's high school as well as junior high, as well as elementary. But obviously, there must be a tremendous amount of activities going on.
>
> Susan - And . . .
>
> Betty - By the same token, though, I don't think we should be victimized by this, to the extent that, you know, we've been asked to develop this stuff. We've done it in good faith. Even if the teachers don't, you know, out there, don't want to be in-serviced, you know, why should our stuff be punished for it? Because of their attitude towards - I mean, the fact that they're being in-serviced to death is their school system's fault, not ours.
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

6. The ad hoc advisory committee had insisted on the use of examples from the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units

in the modules. Teachers did not seem to like these examples.

> Ted - No, but, you see, the other one who wasn't in on the plot said, "Now, have you seen the Kanata Kits, Grade Four and Five?" And we said, "No, we haven't." "Well, they've just arrived. Would you like to look at them?"
>
> Susan - Grade Four.
>
> Ted - And so we went along and she showed them to us. "Now, I'm supposed to use these with my Grade Four kids. And they're average or below-average students. Just get the Student Manual or the Student Booklet out and read it," she says. "There's no way that I can use it with my kids."
>
> . . . .
>
> Ted - It's just like Rita using Grade One. She uses the, the Kanata Kit, but it sits in a box at the back of her room. And she used the rusty example of the audiotapes. And she said that her kids - and she's only got a small class, about eighteen of them - she says they won't sit still for the time they're supposed to listen to those audiotapes. You know, as an adult you wouldn't want to sit still and listen to it for that long. But, see, there are all of these things, which they're bringing with them all the time.
>
> Susan - Yeah.
>
> Ted - See, it was interesting that the few times I've been around where we've ever done any piloting at all, if ever we've used examples from the Kanata Kit in the first step, they've always rejected them.
>
> Susan - Yep.
>
> Ted - They did that with the Grade Nine one. And they've done it with the Grade Seven one now.
>
> Betty - There they dinged us out for the Grade Seven example that we had in
>
> Ted - Well . . .
>
> Betty - Valuing.

Ted - Well, we . . .

Susan - That Grade Five one for Resolving the Issue.

Ted - That's the first time though that I've ever
sat down and tried to do that Grade Seven one.

Betty - Well, I hadn't tried it before. There was
no way we could understand the directions for it,
about how to score yourself on a sheet.

Ted - And you could just imagine a Grade Seven kid
trying to sort it out.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

7. The pilot groups consisted of teachers from all

grade levels. An ideal group would be composed of

participants who taught the same grade.

Betty - You don't see that in one school. There
aren't too many schools with three Grade Five
classrooms in it. This is Dave's fault, not ours.
Heavens to Betsy! An ideal piloting group would
have been a bunch of Grade Ones one day, a bunch
of Grade Fives another day, you know, at least it
would have got over that hangup. They might have
done Step Six quite gladly.

Susan - And also Steps Five and Seven.

Ted - That's the point I was trying to make.

Betty - But we didn't choose them!

(Feb. 15, 1981)

8. Teachers were sometimes participating in the

modules, not through any interest on their part, but

because of commitments made by their school administrators.

Bill - Exactly, and the thing here is that we're,
we're overreacting on the basis of forced choice.
That all of the people that we've been piloting
with, and have been trying things out with, are
people who didn't choose to go into this activity.

Brad - Yeah, they've been pilotted under some of
the worst

Bill - Under duress.

Brad - worst conditions.

<div align="center">
(Feb. 11, 1981
10:10 - 11:50)
</div>

Tom - I'm not sure at all that the enthusiasm comes
from the staff as much as it does from Irene's
feeling that they need it.

Susan - So they may be resentful about being involved
in it in the first place.

Ted - See, now, if she feels that they need it, and
they're saying that, "No-one ever asked us what
we need."

. . . .

Betty - There's another point though. If a principal
of a school decides that this is what the staff of
his school or her school is going to be subjected to,
(General laughter at the word, "subjected")

Betty - They didn't ask for that. She did. She's
the, she's the one that should be going through the
process. Not them. That's not democratic.

Ted - You're in great form this morning, Betty.

Betty - Well, heavens, it's so ridiculous, all these
factors that we have to compete against. Other
people's bloody stupidity! If that principal at
Lakeside Elementary is so much of an autocrat that
she dictates what her staff is going to do, then
she deserves what she gets!

Ted - But we're the ones getting it.

Betty - I know it! And it's not fair! And Alice
should not come out under those circumstances if
she knows that. It's just making our job doubly hard.
Coming out when the staffs don't want to be
in-serviced. How charming! Democracy in action!

<div align="center">
(Feb. 15, 1981)
</div>

9.   Some teachers perceived the piloting as something
done merely as a formality, to legitimize the Mentor Program.
It really had little significance because it was too late
for any major changes to occur anyway.

Susan - And they also seemed to think, they felt
that the piloting is futile because they say that,
okay, "Alberta Ed., ACCESS, and so on have
invested a certain amount of money in this so far
and so much time has been invested in it, we're
not going to change the basic format. We might
change a few cosmetic things." And she's probably
right. The basic format is going to go ahead.
So she said, "What's the point?"

(Feb. 15, 1981)

10. The attitude of observers was sometimes considered

to be detrimental to the success of pilot sessions.

Betty - I was so annoyed that they came down from
Ferndale Public and sat there in front of those
teachers and said, "Oh, well, we're just going to
have another Downey Report in five years." That's
a lovely attitude to have at this point, isn't it?
With a new curriculum in place, he's already
expecting that we're going to get another Downey
report saying, "Send it back." Now this is a damn
consultant with the system who's talking this way!
And in front of a group of teachers!

Tom - Probably they didn't know what the Downey
Report was about.

Betty - No, but he did and he was directing his
comment merely at us. But, you know, it still
bugged me that he would say that in front of a group
of teachers. That he's quietly accepting that
the new curriculum is going to bomb. That's a
nice positive attitude to have!

. . . .

Betty - That was the point - that guy made a crack
at that point in the discussion, that guy from
Central Office. I said to him that we had been
trying very hard not to be directive to teachers in
these modules, you know, do this, do this, do this, and
the next thing. And he said, "All you've got now
is a subtler form of direction."

Susan - Well, I think we've discussed that between
ourselves, haven't we?

Ted - Well, . . .

Betty - But I thought that was not the place to be
saying that when we're trying to pilot the stuff

Susan - Yeah.

Betty - with a group of teachers. It didn't create a very good atmosphere in the room.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

The ad hoc advisory committee proved to be a useful source of legitimation. When questioned about any decision, it was very easy to evade responsiblity by reminding one another either that the committee had approved it or that the decision had come from the committee in the first place.

> Susan - The thing that, you know what's going to happen is if it turns out people, if it gets bad feedback all along, if it is used, who's going to get all the blame? Everyone else is going to be running off like . . .
>
> Ted - Well, I don't know if they can.
>
> Susan - Well, why? The developers did it, you know.
>
> Ted - The ad hoc committee approved it.
>
> Susan - Yes, but they'll just say, "Well, we were under time constraints."
>
> Ted - Well, let them say what they want. We can turn around and say, "We were under lots of constraints too. We were under the constraints of the Kanata Kits. We were under the constraints of the Teaching Units."
>
> Betty - Changes that the committee wanted made that we didn't approve of, but we made them because they wanted them.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

> Betty - There's a point though, if I may interrupt for a sec. There is a point though, that I think Bill alluded to earlier that, that Karen might like to know, and that is - they are commitified, as you said.
>
> Bill - Um hm.

Betty - The reason the module pattern is so
consistent is because the committee wanted it
that way. They wanted . . .

(Feb. 11, 1981)

Betty - And, of course, they were holding us, as
Susan was saying, they were holding us responsible
for those pages out of the Kanata Kit.

Susan - That's right, yeah.

Betty - But we didn't develop it! This was
developed by somebody else.

Susan - We were responsible for the whole curriculum.

Betty - We had to use them in these modules though.
But we didn't actually do them. 'Cause they were
giving us personal Hell, weren't they? We were
supposed to have done these sheets and they were
wrong. And we were getting the flack right there
and then. And we kept saying, "We didn't do them,
you know. We have to use them."

. . . .

Susan - It seems sensible for us to leave the self-
directed then, in terms of this change.

Betty - Yeah, but we still obeyed the committee
in making them self-directed.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

Appeals to Significant Others

Werner has defined the phrase, "appeals to significant
others," as referring to the use of experts "to lend
support and authority to the position taken by program
developers" (Werner, 1977, p. 106).

The Mentor developers' "significant others" seem to
have been research in the areas of learning theory and
in-service education for teachers. The impact of learning
theory was most evident in the format of the modules.

When this format was questioned by one developer, another developer appealed to learning theory to provide support for the format used.

> Ted - Yeah, see I'm assuming that I'm interested in this, you know, and that I've come along and I've been unhappy about the way my units start and I've heard all about these Openers or whatever people call them, because there's a whole bunch of weasel words for that too. So, now I'm going to see two teachers with different ways of introducing Openers - one who's pretty directive and the other one who likes to work with the students, and I get some idea of what they are. And I know that in the end I'm going to work up by developing one anyway. So why would I want to experience one at the beginning and then work on one later?

> Tom - I think the rationale is pretty clear. The most meaningful examples from which to build concepts are ones with which you have had immediate contact, personal experience. This is the same principle of starting with as concrete an example as possible for concept development. And if the concept you're after is Opener, the most concrete example you can provide of Opener is a personal experience with an Opener; not reading about Openers, but having the experiences personally. That was our rationale.

> Ted - I know what our rationale was, but now I'm thinking of all of the criticisms we've had. They're saying things like, "Oh, to hell with all these characteristics."

> Tom - They didn't say, "To hell with all these characteristics!"

> Ted - Well, you know, I'm . . .

> Tom - They're saying that the crummy thing is too long. And I think what Brad is saying is, "That's okay, fine, let's find a short one." But let's try to build on personal experience with Openers before we turn to - sort of like Dale's Cone of Experience. Start with the most concrete example first before you turn to the less and less concrete examples for concept development. It still seems like a sound learning experience to me.

> . . . .

Tom - Sheridan phoned a week ago, and said that
Tornowsky was looking at using this Mentor Program
as a test case for the Tripartite Committee's
approach to in-service. The Tripartite Committee,
apparently, has listed a bunch of principles that
they think should apply to in-service programs.
And one of the principles they list is that the
development of in-service programs should be based
on sound learning principles. It seems to me that
starting with that direct experience is consistent
with what we know about good learning and what we
know about good concept development. I guess I'd
be loathe to start with a more abstract presentation
of that concept. I'd prefer starting with something
that's direct and as meaningful as we can manage.

(August 27, 1980)

In the next excerpt, the appeal is to the literature

on in-service, with specific mention made of Fullan and

Pomfret's extensive review of the research done in this

area.

Brad - The way the format's going to be handled, I
guess is the question. We kicked that around when
we initially put it together and I still think it's
based on some pretty sound, it was based on some
pretty sound notions as to what would make an
attractive in-service session, in terms of
involvement, some visuals, and something to take
away.

Ted - Take them through the process.

. . . .

Brad - "Interest wanes when you get away from the
practical, useful ideas." (Reading a pilot teacher's
written comment)

Tom - You know, I somehow think this last comment
- you go back to that Fullan and Pomfret stuff and
that's basically what he's saying. "Decentralize
your resources, give them responsibility for
generating materials, let them establish the
appropriate focus." There are a whole bunch of those
precepts.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

Nihilism

According to Werner, nihilism involves methods whereby "alternative reality interpretations are given a negative status" (1977, p. 115).

The ad hoc advisory committee was a target of nihilism.

> Brad - Well, let's go back to that Opener one and look at it. The committee seemed to be favourably impressed with that kind of format.
>
> Ted - We'll look at it carefully then. (Voice heavy with sarcasm)
>
> (April 11, 1980)
>
> Tom - Take them through a Resolving the Issue issue, where they might have enough personal knowledge to enable them to come to grips with it, to identify some of the values. The two things that I thought we . . .
>
> Betty - Let's make up a hypothetical thing about what the board is going to offer us for a salary.
>
> Ted - We did that last time and they bloody well blew us out of the room.
>
> . . . .
>
> Brad - I've just sat there and been bored silly as they go through this stuff, and this - and now we're backing up even one step further and saying, "Here's a proposal for what we're going to do." I know that they're going to - just kind of talk around it for an hour.
>
> (May 20, 1980)
>
> Ted - No, redoing the whole page for just one word isn't what you want to do.
>
> Susan - They'll be making more changes anyway, probably.
>
> Tom - The only thing I'm really concerned about is once you tell them about that kind of a change, then they start -

Brad - Yeah.

Tom - "Hmmm, why are we doing that, now? What's significant about that?" They they're likely to go back to Step Two

Ted - And say, "That's not what we did in the other, is it?"

Tom - and say, "Hey, this isn't . . ."

Susan - I don't know how you can be so patient.

(Jan. 22, 1981)

Brad - Resolving the Issue - I'm not sure that you can call that a demonstration.

Tom - Why?! The committee thought that was great stuff, super, fantastic. Give us 14,000 copies of that. We want everybody in the world to see it.

Susan - It makes you wonder about the committee.

(Laughter)

Tom - I don't think that's a bad demonstration either.

Susan - Dave Phillips thought the quality of that was good.

Ted - That was just, that was

Tom - ( ) quality.

Ted - being nice.

Susan - nice?

Ted - ( )

Susan - Yeah, call it being phoney, not nice.

Ted - Yeah, but . . .

Tom - It wasn't just Dave. Linda Adams thought it was good too. She was anxious to use it.

Ted - She probably voted against us as well.

Susan - Pardon?

Ted - She probably voted against us as well.

(Laughter)

ACCESS was also a target of nihilism.

Ted - We also got taken around ACCESS, which is
a . . . It's sort of like a trip to . . .
It reminds me of Alice in Wonderland, except
you're continually falling down the hole. You
never hit bottom. (Laughter) Didn't you feel
that way, though? You're taken around all of this
place. In this studio, oh, we're doing a film
about this, or whatever, you know. Very impressed
and you can hear hammers in the background, so you
know someone's working. There's a gnome at the
back who hangs on walls to give visitors the
impression that work's going on. Because the rest
of the time we only saw two people actually engaged
in what I would call anything that was producing
material. We saw one . . .

Tom - Not like if they came over here.

Ted - We saw one guy editing a film and we saw two
fellows who calimed that they were putting the
sound track on another. But the rest - every time
we went somewhere it was, "Hi, Bill," "Hi, this."
Nobody, everybody knows that everybody's going around.
There's always aspidistras all over the place. Every
time you come to a, a ramp in the stairs, there's
aspidistras and you expect that Johnson fellow from
"Laugh-In," - you know, with the German helmet, to
peer through it at any time. Then,they have to take
you around and then you get this thing about what
we haven't got. And what they haven't got is what
everybody in the school system has. They don't have
machines to put things on half-inch tape. They don't
have machines to put things on three-quarter inch
tape. But they've got no end of - you know, like
you look at the editing thing, they've got these
reels here. They've got all this film going in.

Brad - It's made.

Ted - It's like a sort of, you think you're on the
fourth level of Dante's Inferno when you're in this
editing room. And then anything that's for production
for school . . .

Another organization toward which nihilism was directed was Alberta Education.

> Tom - That's the change that's, I guess, most extensive - that they're going to mandate so much specific knowledge content in every unit that to continue the whole farce that it's gonna be inquiry is just ridiculous.

> Mary - It's a waste of time. As soon as you tell people what the content, what specific content you want, they'll just . . .

> Betty - They're giving them carte blanche to do the old traditional facts, knowledge.

> Tom - And they've got this testing committee now that's in the process of putting together a test they're going to use; and, of course, teachers, once they get wind of that - you can't blame them.

> Susan - Of course!

> Tom - They're going to be oriented toward making sure that the kids have the facts.

> Mary - Why are they so gung ho on insisting that we continue with this approach, then, to in-service.

> Tom - I think, because, in the process of developing a curriculum guide, a lot of commitment was built up that

> Mary - That this is the rhetoric.

> Tom - this is the good thing to do.

> Mary - This is the rhetoric for the public.

> Tom - Then the Minister mandates that, they plug in all of the specific content. And to be sure that that happens, he's going to test the kids on it. They're going to be tested at the end of Grade six, Grade nine, and Grade twelve.

> Mary - Why doesn't he test them on whether or not they're developing any strategies for dealing with values, or whether they're developing any skills in reading a graph, or uh, reading a timeline?

Tom - Because, very simply, Peter Lougheed doesn't give a damn about those kinds of goals. Peter Lougheed is concerned that kids know Canadian history and geography.

Mary - But, like, what criteria are we using to decide that? I mean . . .

Betty - Here's a good statement and I'd love to know how he thinks he's going to test this - "Mr. Speaker, the Department of Education intents to test students' knowledge about Canadian history, geography, and citizenship."

Mary - They'll give them paper-and-pencil tests.

Betty - How do you test citizenship?

Tom - Knowledge about . . .

Mary - Ask them things like - What does 'R.C.M.P.' stand for?

Tom - What is the function of the

Mary - How many seats are there in the House of Commons?

Tom - Senate? What is the function of the House and what's the function of the Prime Minister?

Mary - How old do you have to be to vote? Who's your M.L.A.?

Tom - Sure, that's citizenship.

Mary - Who's the mayor of Edmonton?

Tom - Those are the kinds of things that are going to go in there and . . .

Betty - "It will not be a test of current curriculum or instruction. It is intended as a preinstructional test and it is expected to assist in assessing appropriate instruction and content for the region."

Tom - Well, that's just the one this Fall. That's this little - that teachers' Black test.

Mary - But, it's saying that those things are the important things, because you want to find out what kids know about them now.

. . . .

Tom - So, apparently, there's a lot of concern that
that statement about "Canadian knowledge as a
precondition for integrated studies" meant that
you had to start the year with a straight factual unit
on chronological history and regional geography.

Betty - And, hopefully, get on to the social inquiry
process later?

Tom - I don't know if "hopefully" is the word or not.
But, at any rate, that should come first, and given
the propensity of teachers to stretch their first
unit out at great length, (I'm the same way, I must
admit), if they never got around to social studies
as it's written in that document, well, it wouldn't
be surprising to anybody, I'm sure. And then, since
they're going to have the testing, at the end of the
year in Grades six, nine, and twelve, toward the
end of the year everything else is going to get
dropped while they work on factual knowledge.

. . . .

Betty - Well, where does this leave our in-service
stuff?

Tom - The direction that we were given was to go ahead
with the program as it was originally proposed and
not to worry about the, any change in the program.

Mary - It's going to be just like the Kanata Kits -
it won't fit.

Betty - We're creating a white elephant here, are we?

(May 13, 1980)

The 1981 social studies curriculum came in for a great

deal of nihilistic comment as well. The following comments

were made upon looking through a draft version of the new

curriculum.

Tom - So, I guess what he was saying was, "You
guys had better have a look at the treatment of
analyzing, evaluating data and Openers and so on
in the revised curriculum," because according to
him anyway, there are some more specific
definitions of those in this version which might
have some implications for those modules, so it
behooves us to have a glance at the revised
document.

. . . .

Mary - "Social Studies defined" - that's going to
be fun. I should have read that last week when
I was doing my . . . (Laughter) I'm always a week
behind. Now, wait a minute - here we are, you see.
My thesis is just going to be right in here - "Social
studies is the school subject in which students
learn to explore, and where possible, to resolve
social issues that are of public and personal concern:
a. history, geography and the social sciences provide
the content for inquiry into social issues." You're
going to have to shape up there Tom. It's going to
be right into the history, geography. You're going
to be right in line with Manitoba any moment now.
They sit for one hundred and ten years and, by God,
you're right back to us. (Laughter) "These disciplines
enable students to bring to the issue a better
understanding of their cultural heritage, their
natural environment, the society in which they live,
and the complexity of the human experience."

Tom - Love it.

Mary - Beautiful. "Citizenship - Effective citizenship
is the ultimate goal of social studies." Gee!
"The value, knowledge, and skill objectives of this
curriculum are designed to help students develop
intellectual independence," (Not bloody likely!),
"moral maturity and more effective involvement in the
political, economic, and social affairs of their
communities." Well, that's certainly different than
what was there before. That isn't the way it was
defined before.

Tom - There must be an awful lot of room for political
geography in that.

Mary - Um hm. Okay, and here it's all spelled out -
where the geography is, where the history is, where
the political science is, where the economics is.
This is Ontario's curriculum, you guys. I told you.
Hang in there. You'll be right with us.

Tom - The content is certainly far more specific.
It makes the '71 version of the program look as nebulous
as . . . Want to take bets on how many people will
read that document?

Mary - About the same number that read the last one.
(Laughter) A few.

Tom - This is fatter - more intimidating.

. . . .

Betty - It's quicker to give the kids a retrieval
chart that's already done. That saves you a step
in the process. And, better still, tell them what
you want them to find out and they'll find out.

Mary - Well, in essence, you can't blame the teachers
for holding that view, because, in fact, the
curriculum says the same thing really. It doesn't
really want teachers to, to come up with social
issues from the children. It says, "These are the
issues you should deal with in this unit."

. . . .

Mary - That curriculum really is prescriptive.
And it's becoming more prescriptive, and what
we're trying to do in this in-service is to make
teachers less prescriptive and so we're flying in the
face of what the curriculum is trying to do.

(Aug. 11, 1980)

Nihilism was directed toward the Kanata Kits and

Teaching Units as well.

Betty - See, what I was thinking - the difficulty
with planning examples to fit in the modules taken
from the Teaching Units and the Kanata Kits would
be phenomenal because some of the Units, for instance,
have no affective stuff in them at all.

Hugh - Do you like this generalization?

Betty - How do you feel about it?

Tom - The whole cognitive and affective ( )
evaluating knowledge.

Mary - I <u>like</u> the fact that China ( ). It makes
me feel <u>good</u>.

Brad - On a five-point scale, how good? ( ) skills,
inquiry and participation skills.

. . . .

Betty - But if we have to confine ourselves to
examples out of Teaching Units and Kanata Kits,
we're going to be hard pressed.

(July 28, 1980)

Betty - Because in some of the units there are, and
Kanata Kits, there are no analyzing activities.
There are no evaluation of data activities. I
don't know how you feel but if somebody arbitrarily

said, you know, "Here's what other people are
doing," and it's not on the unit I designed, I
might not take it too well. So . . .

Tom - You all see what her problem is?

Mary - Um hm.

Betty - I was talking to Mary about it before.

Mary - I suggested that she just put in a disclaimer
saying, "For the purposes of this in-service,
these categories were being, or these ways of
organizing are being selected, while in the Teachers'
Units and Kanata Kits, other titles were used.
The type of activity was . . ."

Betty - It goes even deeper than that though. It's
not just other titles that they used. It's wrong
intents are specified.

Tom - I hear you saying part of the problem is that
- a teacher teaching Grade Four looks at the back
to find some examples of analyzing and evaluating
data, and hits a blank. This Teaching Unit doesn't
have any analyzing and evaluating data as such.
So there's a teacher sitting there saying, "Hey, I
thought we were supposed to be using a process which
included analyzing and evaluating data. How come
here's an exemplary unit that doesn't have it?"

. . . .

But it starts muddying when it comes to organizing
it because as long as,I think Brad remarked the other
day, these Kanata Kits have retrieval charts already
done in them. You tell me the kids do any organizing
of data when they've got the retrieval charts
handed to them on a stupid handout with the data
organized.

. . . .

Betty - It's hard to get round. Like you were saying,
I don't want to have blanks appearing, saying, you
know - it's pretty hard to say there are no analyzing
data activities in this unit. But it would be true
because there aren't in some of them. There aren't
in some of them I was looking at this morning.
There aren't in some of the Kanata Kits.

Tom - I'd put down what you can and at the top a
sentence that said, "These are some examples that
were found in some of the units."

Betty - It would have to be that way, but not in a way that says the other units don't have any. But it should be saying that, you know.

Tom - Well, just leave a blank place and type in there - "This lousy unit didn't have an example."

(July 31, 1980)

Mary - So there really isn't any way that children will define their own value issue anymore.

Betty - The Kanata Kits don't even pretend to do that. They start off with a value issue.

. . . .

Betty - The people who designed those Teaching Units didn't know the process. And those are the people telling others how to do it? Now, it seems to me that it's been left, it's kind of the onus is at our feet now.

. . . .

Betty - Have any of you looked closely at the Grade Eight Kanata Kit? It completely avoids the whole social inquiry process. It boggles. It does a token thing of it, but there is no resolving of any issue. There is no applying of any decision.

(Aug. 11, 1980)

Tom - It's one of the handouts I'm gonna use with my 312 course under the heading of "What do you get for 8½ million dollars?" That's what you get - to sing "Oh, Canada" every morning.

Brad - Symbols.

Tom - I'm surprised the Teacher's Guide doesn't have the words to "Oh, Canada" in it and some kind of pledge to the flag in it.

(Aug. 26, 1980)

Ted - Of course, I always think then if we told them it was from a Grade Two Kanata Kit, they should be up in the air about the damned Kanata Kit. They didn't like it. What the Hell do they think some kids are going to think of it?

. . . .

Ted - Because it seems to me that, however, we go
about it, you know, the constraints, you know, like
if I was teaching in Pincher Creek, you know, I
mean, I'd probably be using the Kanata Kit to keep
a desk up, you know, because the leg's broken off.
And, I mean that could happen.

. . . .

Tom - Well, what are the units and Kanata Kits that
stick out in peoples' minds as good ones?

Ted - Now, there's the problem.

. . . .

Brad - That's right! That's right! They took our
Tourist unit and stuck it in there holus-bolus.

Tom - That's a lousy unit. That unit is the biggest
mishmash!

Betty - Turn the tape off because I'm getting sick.

Brad - I think you'd better clarify that for that
tape. You just said it includes our material and
then you say it's lousy, so . . .

Tom - You know, what I was going to say was it
diesn't seem to me to hang together very well.

. . . .

Betty - Scrap the Grade Six Teaching Unit. We may
as well forget Grade Six completely, because that
Grade Six Teaching Unit is very poor and there is
no Kanata Kit.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

Betty - There's only one shared, just because

Bill - One shared and two teacher . . .

Betty - they're hard to find in the Kanata Kits
and Teaching Units. That was about the best
example Ted could find that he thought could be
codified, and used that way, from that Grade
Twelve kit, Kanata Kit.

(Feb. 11, 1981
10:10 - 11:50)

Ted - See, it was interesting that the few times
I've been around where we've ever done any piloting
at all, if ever we've used examples from the
Kanata Kit in the first step, they've always
rejected them.

. . . .

Ted - That's the first time though that I've ever
sat down and tried to do that Grade Seven one.

Betty - Well, I hadn't tried it before. There was
no way we could understand the directions for it, about
how to score yourself on a sheet.

Ted - And you could just imagine a Grade Seven kid
trying to sort it out.

Betty - And, of course, they were holding us, as
Susan was saying, they were holding us responsible
for those pages out of the Kanata Kit.

. . . .

Susan - That's right, yes.

Betty - But we didn't develop it! This was developed
by somebody else.

Susan - We were responsible for the whole curriculum.

Betty - We had to use them in these modules though.
But we didn't actually do them. 'Cause they were
giving us personal Hell, weren't they? We were
supposed to have done these sheets and they were
wrong. And we were getting the flack right there and
then. And we kept saying, "We didn't do them, you
know. We have to use them."

(Feb. 15, 1981)

Pilot teachers did not escape nihilistic comment either.

Pillotting the modules was a very disheartening

experience. As a result, the developers became very

discouraged.

Tom - Not a good way to start this morning because
I just feel, why bother!

Susan - Well, that's natural. Why bother doing all
this when they hate what we've done so far anyway?

(Feb. 15, 1981)

The quoted comments in the next excerpt (Aug. 26,
1980) are being read from feedback forms filled out by
participants in a pilot session of the Openers module.
Part of the module had involved viewing a videotape
entitled "People In Need." The videotape showed two of
the developers doing an Opener to a unit on Haves and
Have-Nots, with a Grade 4/5 class. The children were asked
to produce paper squares of a particular size, with one-half
the class given the appropriate tools, and the other half
not. The reward for each perfect square was a jellybean.

Brad - "Jellybeans are not nutritious." (Reading
from a Feedback Form)

Susan - Can you believe it?

Brad - God!

Betty - The one lady who wrote that there - I couldn't
believe it. She was most annoyed.

Brad - I just read that.

Betty - Two people responded that way, that they
didn't like the idea of using jellybeans. They
weren't nutritious. Too much sweet bugs the teeth.
Question Four - "What activities were most helpful?"
Now I think this is interesting.

Ted - "Lack discipline, rather noisy."

(Laughter)

Brad - I've been told that before. My students look
at and say, "My God, you don't know how to control
kids very well."

(Laughter)

Tom - We did accomplish what we were after.

Ted - "Is the use of candy as a reward necessary?"

Brad - Isn't that unbelievable?

Ted - "Do not teach for money."

Tom - "Activities that were least helpful."

Betty - One cheeky person wrote, "Filling out the questionnaire was least helpful."

(Laughter)

Ted - That's true. Look at all the trouble it caused us. Another winner.

(Aug. 26, 1980)

Betty - Will there also be some teachers who will sit and pick holes for the fact that they're not,

Tom - Likely.

Betty - they're not superfying the production?

Tom - Likely.

Susan - It doesn't matter what we do . . .

Betty - Look at the comments that John Black's, of course admittedly, we keep getting back to the fact that they were so picky, but John Black's group were saying things like, you know, "The noise in that V.T.R. was terrible!" and "I didn't know what he was really trying to do," and . . .

(Aug. 27, 1980)

Betty - To suit people with this attitude though! They don't give a shit! Why should we revamp things to suit people like this?

. . . .

Betty - See, they, they were talking about bringing stuff back from in-services. They like to bring things back that they could use in the classroom the next day. And we reminded them that this was a process.

Tom - Step Six is supposed to help them generate

Susan - But I guess the point is it helps them to generate.

Tom - something for their own classes.

Betty - Yeah, not us giving it to them. They wanted something handed to them. They were very happy when we told them there would be Appendices that would contain certain examples. They were very happy about that.

Susan - Yeah, in fact, that's what one of them mentioned was the best thing about Resolving the Issue, that it had examples in the Appendix.

Betty - But they still don't know the process, so what darn good are the examples going to be to them? You know, they're going to go about them in a teacher-directed nonprocess way. And the examples will fall flat.

. . . .

Susan - You know why they liked the Decision Tree?

Tom - Why did they? I was curious about that.

Susan - Well, the kids would be able to colour it.

Tom - (Loud laughter)

Betty - Are we ever flogging a dead horse, or are we not?

Tom - Oh, gee!

Susan - No, but the point is, I understand why.

Tom - Ohhh!

Susan - No, listen. You know, the point is that that was very straightforward. And they said, "You know, you can see how it works up and everything. It's the kind of thing I can see using in my class more than the Decision Map. I can see using that and I can see, you know, the kids may even want to colour it afterwards." And I knew that comment, you know, when you say it it sounds so superficial and everything, but at least she felt it was good because it was something she could take away from the in-service and use. And that gets back to your point about teachers wanting something to use. There was something she could use.

Betty - We were facetious months ago. Who was it
said something about some workshop we were at, or
whatever, conference - "Social studies is what you
plan in the hallway on your way down after rece**ss**."
That's it, isn't it? That's the attitude right
there, that you got a sheet of paper to get the kids
to colour. Then maybe a wee bit to do first before
they colour it. That, that's social studies.

. . . .

Betty - I think that this group at Lakeside
Elementary is suspect and I don't think we should
be . . .

Susan - Well, Alice said they're representative
though.

Tom - Representative of what she deals with all the
time. She walks into an atmosphere of resenting
the new curriculum, resenting somebody coming out
to tell them what they're supposed to be doing in their
classrooms, and the usual thing is to find the staff
response similar to what we're getting at Lakeside
Elementary.

Betty - But we're not responsible for this feeling of
militancy on their part.

Tom - So we're not.

Susan - But we still have to work within that.

Brad - Could we create anything then that would - that
they would like?

Tom - I think they'd probably like it if we walked
on coals in our bare feet.

Ted - Well, they did bring up the point that . . .

Tom - and cried a lot.

(Laughter)

Betty - And analyzed and organized at the same time.

Ted - Rita did bring up the point, didn't she, that
they bring up these super speakers from the U.S.?

Susan - Oh, yeah, somebody from California really
impressed her. She made her laugh and made her
excited about . . .

Betty - That's entertainment though. That's not
learning.

Susan - Yes, but that's the whole point.

Tom - At 3:30 they're ready for a little entertainment.
Serious work is not what they're looking for at the
end of their day.

Susan - But the point is, would they think this was
any better at nine in the morning? I wonder.

Betty - What's the matter with their attitude?
Heaven's to Betsy! Those teachers are really living
compared to twenty years ago.

(Laughter)

They're getting time off class to go to in-services!
I never in my life got that! I went to every in-service
at the end of the day.

Susan - So did I and I always thought I was lucky.

Betty - And I could count on the fingers of one hand
anything that was entertaining in any of them.

Tom - It's not twenty years ago.

Betty - ( ) That's what's happening. People are just
giving them lots of goodies to placate them, entertaining
sessions and what have you.

Ted - You said it.

. . . .

Ted - If I walked on coals I'd burn my feet and they'd
say, "There you are. Bloody social studies educators.
They burn their feet. Science guys can do it. They've
got a better deal."

. . . .

Brad - What would, would there be any advantage, to, to
not handing them the booklet? To have the pages, some
of the pages separately.

Tom - Gee, the ones who were in on the plot to go
through it in ten minutes would be really crushed.

Brad - Yeah.

Tom - "Give me that! Give me that! I want it!"

. . . .

Brad - On the overhead, though, you might just have the
model itself. The other things you would talk to.
And then, and then, once you've made them listen to
it, . . .

Tom - Treating them like little kids.

Brad - Yeah, it is. Well, it's trying to control the
communication that's going on.

Tom - Right.

Ted - Well, that gets at the idea of justification.

Tom - Make them sit so they're facing you so that
(   ).

Brad - So that they can't be miserable, can't talk
to each other, and make snide, offhand remarks.

. . . .

Ted - We'll lead 'em. We'll lead 'em. We'll say,
- I'll share an example with them of the Riverbend one.
And then try to get responses from them. "What have
you done?" (Laughter) "Nothing." "That figured."
"What have you got?" (Laughter)

Tom - "Oh, worthless one, what have you done?"

Betty - Rita'll pop you in the nose.

Ted - (   ) Get off your ass and do some social
action! (Laughter)

. . . .

Ted - I'll wear a suit tomorrow. Come with a bandage
on. "I tried puttin' my hand on hot coals, but it
didn't work."

(Laughter)

Betty - And come limping in.

(Laughter)

Ted - I'll get you to paint a black mark across my
hands for the poker.

Susan - Maybe this won't be so bad after all.

Betty - Do some of those cute and fancy experiments
that kids love. You know, the kind where you put a
saucer of water and a piece of paper and put a
tumbler over the water glass. First of all you
light the paper, put the glass over it, and the water
all gets sucked up into the glass. Very effective.
Kids love it.

Tom - Well, it's not social action though. I think
what you do is you start off by having them decide
to go on strike tomorrow."

Ted - And then they'll turn around and say, "Well, we
needn't do the rest because we won't work."

(Feb. 15, 1981)

Nihilism is a plausibility structure involved with

maintaining a shared viewpoint. A shared viewpoint is

developed through conversation.

Berger has said that

Plausibility, in the sense of what people actually
find credible, of views of reality depends upon
the social support these receive. . . We obtain
our notions about the word originally from other
human beings, and these notions continue to be
plausible to us in a very large measure because
others continue to affirm them . . . . It is in
conversation, in the broadest sense of the word,
that we build up and keep going our view of the
world. It follows that this view will depend upon
the continuity and consistency of such conversation
and that it will change as we change conversation
partners. (Berger, 1969, p. 43)

The developers engaged in a great deal of conversation,

both in and out of committee meetings. These conversations

served to maintain a shared viewpoint concerning "outsiders"

such as members of the ad hoc committee. Through

conversation, members gave one another support in a situation

where they felt relatively powerless, in that the parameters

were determined by Alberta Education, ACCESS, and the

ad hoc committee. They felt beseiged by external forces.

The use of nihilism was a defense against all of this.

By defining other viewpoints as unworthy, perceived

threats to one's own point of view of reality are neutralized.

Design

The analysis of the Design involved two substeps. The first was a breakdown of the Mentor Program according to the implicit and explicit decisions which it represents, and their constraints.

Implicit decisions are those which are adopted without consideration of alternatives. Explicit decisions are those which are made after due consideration has been given to alternative courses of action.

Each decision has been linked to an appeal to circumstance or to a principle. According to Walker,

> The curriculum designer wants to be able to say he was constrained either by circumstances or by his principles to decide as he did. To be constrained by circumstances is the curriculum designer's strongest possible justification, for then he has no genuine choice. (1971, p. 55)

The second substep was an analysis of the Design using the same categories applied to the Platform: Purpose, Format, Content, Setting, Role of Participants, and Evaluation.

Issue	Decision	Constraint
	(I) - Implicit (E) - Explicit	(C) - Circumstance (P) - Principle
1. Should the in-service program rely on a leader or should it be capable of being used independently by participants?	(E) - Leader directed	(C) - Pilot teachers - Alberta Educatio decision to appoint 125 resource teachers as in-service leaders

Issue	Decision	Constraint
2. Where are the class-room demonstrations to take place and who is to teach them?	(E) - Taught by teachers in a variety of class-room situations around the prov-ince	(C) - Ad Hoc Committee - ACCESS - Alberta Education
3. Should an in-service with the intent of teaching about inquiry, use inquiry?	(E) - Partly	(C) - Pilot teachers (P) - Belief in learning theory
4. Where did the role of developers end and that of ACCESS begin?	(E) - Developers - writing of print materials. Pilotting and rev-ision of print materials. Editting of print materials. Writing of lesson plans for video-taped classroom demonstrations. Consultation during production. ACCESS - Production of program, including print and nonprint components.	(C) - Contract - ACCESS
5. Were teachers to choose between two modules dealing with the same inquiry skill, according to their preferred teaching styles (teacher-directed or teacher-student shared decision-making) or were aspects of each teaching style to be in one module?	(E) - Aspects of each teaching style in one module	(C) - Could not seem to develop a separate module on teacher-student shared decision-making
6. Where is the content for the classroom demonstrations to be obtained?	(E) - Primarily Kanata Kits and Teaching Units	(C) - Ad Hoc Committee
7. Were the modules to be varied in format or uniform?	(I) Uniform	(C) - Ad Hoc Committee

The number of implicit decisions in the design of any program is endless. However, any implicit decision should be able to be retrieved by asking how a particular issue was decided.

While the number of explicit decisions is finite, the researcher does not claim that these six are the only decisions made on the basis of consideration of alternatives. However, they are certainly the major ones.

Purpose

In the Proposal the purpose was stated as being to explore "alternate classroom organizations and instructional sequences inherent in the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Program" (p. 1).

Since the final materials sent to ACCESS by the developers did not contain a statement of purpose, the final product produced by ACCESS was searched for such. This excerpt was taken to be a statement of purpose.

> The assumption is that, prior to using the Mentor Series, teachers will have undergone some initial experiences that will have given them a general introduction to the curriculum components, topics, objectives, and learning resources.
>
> The Mentor Series then can be utilized in giving more specific assistance to teachers in developing their abilities to help students with the various aspects of the inquiry process that is basic to teaching Social Studies, as outlined in the Curriculum Guide. (Mentor Project, 1981, p. i)

This statement is much more specific than the one found in the Proposal. It ties the in-service program,

not only to the provincial curriculum, but specifically
to the inquiry model within it.

It should be noted also that the "program" referred
to in the Proposal is the 1978 interim curriculum, while
the "Curriculum Guide" referred to in the Mentor Project
book is the 1981 curriculum.

Format

In the Proposal, the format of the program was
organized around two sections. Part One was a self-
awareness inventory. Based on this, participants would
choose which of four kinds of in-service experiences they
wished to pursue in Part Two: teacher-presenter, learning
contracts, learning centres, or group investigations.

In the final product, Part One was retained, but
Part Two, as described in the Proposal, had disappeared.
Rather than choosing among four classroom organizational
patterns, participants could now choose among thirteen
modules, nine of which were tied to the steps of the
inquiry model in the curriculum guide; three being
concerned with student evaluation and one on valuing.

The developers, in the Proposal, make note of the fact
that research indicates that in-service programs should be
ongoing, as opposed to one-shot sessions. They also
note that constraints of various types frequently make this
impossible. Therefore, the program was to be flexible
to enable it to meet the needs of both those who would be
able to participate in a longterm program and those who
would not.

The final format of the program would seem on the surface to have achieved this end. There is the option of participating in one or more of the self-contained modules. If an individual chose to become involved in every module, then the program would be longterm. However, it is left to the discretion of individual school jurisdictions as to whether or not the many advantages of longterm in-service are built in. These would include opportunities to try out some of the strategies with a trusted observer, who could provide feedback and coaching.

Content

The content of the in-service program, according to the Proposal, was to be concerned with two areas:

Organizing Social Studies for inquiry approaches

Using a variety of approaches and strategies to increase student interest and motivation (P. 11)

The focus was to be on the teacher developing a unit for classroom use based on one of the four classroom organizational patterns: teacher presenter, learning contracts, learning centres, or group investigations.

The content of each pattern was to vary according to the components considered necessary to making it most effective. However, each was to include case studies of classrooms in action, samples of children's work, pertinent articles, and samples of teacher tools useful to making the particular strategy most effective.

The Mentor Project ended up being very uniform in the kinds of experiences offered in each module. Each

contained the following steps:

```
Part 1:  Introduction
Part 2:  Experiencing a _____
Part 3:  Characteristics of a _____
Part 4:  Classroom Demonstrations
Part 5:  Sharing Ideas about _____
Part 6:  Developing a _____
Part 7:  Examples from Kanata Kits and Teaching Units
Part 8:  Module Evaluation Form
```

Retained from the Proposal were the case-studies, or classroom demonstrations, as they were now called. The other aspects of the proposed program were generally discarded, with the exception of the student work samples, which do appear in some modules.

A major difference was in the Proposal's focus on participants developing a unit for use in their own classrooms. Now, each module had one segment (Part 6) devoted to developing an activity using the skill with which that module dealt; i.e., in the Evaluating Data module, participants would develop an activity for their class involving evaluation of data for a unit with which they would be working.

However, there was some doubt that even the little that remained of the original focus on participants developing something for use in their own classrooms would materialize in practice. It was found in pilotting, that first, there was rarely enough time for this activity, and second, even when there was, participants weren't particularly interested in doing it.

Setting

No mention is made as to the efficacy of having the in-service take place in the school setting with the staff of the school as the participants.

However, participants could form "intact groups" on the basis of the self-awareness inventory. The idea of assisting group cohesiveness through the use of "pens, paper, folders, notebooks, etc. bearing a logo symbolic of their group goals" (p. 12) has been discarded. The group interaction built into the modules would promote this end.

Role of Participants

1. Prior to the In-Service Program

This note appeared in the Leader's Manual of each module.

Pre-Attendance Preparation

1. With some groups it may be possible to involve teachers in preliminary activities such as:

(i) Bring to the session specific issues/ problems they will be pursuing with their classes.

(ii) Examples of ways to introduce issues/ problems they have used in their classes to share with others.

(iii) Samples of children's work.

(Leader's Guide, Openers, p. 2)

This was a way of helping participants to shape the session and, as a result, to have a stake in its success.

The Proposal (and the in-service literature) emphasized that teachers' needs should be taken into consideration when designing in-service programs and that teachers should have a role in the planning.

The results of two teacher surveys on in-service needs are itemized in the Proposal. These would seem to have been taken into consideration in developing the proposed program.

2. During the In-Service Program

While teachers did not have a role in planning the in-service program prior to its inception, the Proposal outlines a role for them in planning their experiences during the in-service. Based on their own knowledge of their preferences as to teaching styles and the additional illumination received as a result of the self-awareness inventory, they were to choose the in-service experiences in which they were to participate in Part Two of the session.

This element of choice was retained in the final product, in that participants were still intended to make a choice following the self-awareness inventory. However, the decision was no longer particularly pertinent to the questions in the inventory, since they dealt with teaching style. The choice, with the exception of the valuing and evaluation modules, was based on which step of the inquiry model one wished to explore. In the final draft of the

Proposal, each of these modules was actually going to be two. The activities in each of the two would be similar, but one module was to be intended for participants with a teacher-presenter classroom style and the other was to be intended for teachers who preferred to share the decision-making role with students. With this proposed format, the self-awareness inventory would still be useful in assisting participants to make a choice. However, in the final format, it was decidedly emasculated.

3. Following the In-Service Program

There was no change in the intent that participants would, following the in-service, implement the strategies learned. However, they would no longer be able to implement a unit developed in the in-service.

Evaluation

At the end of each module an evaluation form was included. The questions it asked were as follows:

1. What were the strengths of the module?
2. What were the weaknesses of the module?
3. What improvements can you suggest for the module?

The Leader's Guide for each module referred to the evaluation form in this way:

Leaders may wish to ask participants to complete the evaluation form. The information gathered in the evaluation form may be useful in planning future in-service sessions.

As Nash and Ireland (1979) point out, feedback such as this is of limited value. This form does not begin to meet

either the intents for evaluation expressed in the Proposal or in the in-service literature.

No provision was made to determine whether or not the in-service program actually had any impact on the classroom behaviour or participants.

One of the major concerns of evaluation mentioned in the Proposal is to obtain descriptive data concerning teachers' activities in the in-service. There was no provision built in for this in the final outcome.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

This study was concerned with describing the decision-making processes involved in the development of the Mentor Project, an in-service program.

It was intended to meet the call, dating from the late sixties, and continuing through the seventies, for

> individuals . . . [to] take the time to write down descriptions of their activities, the kinds of decisions that they make, the kinds of information upon which they base their decisions, the kinds of conflicts that arise within the initiator group and how these conflicts are resolved, etc. (Schwab, 1969, p. 19)

The researcher was a member of the development committee for the Mentor Project and participant observation was the methodology used.

Data collection, over a fifteen month period, included tape recordings of development committee meetings, informal interviews, and collecting of relevant documents.

Analysis of data was loosely based on Decker Walker's "naturalistic model" which grew out of observations of how curriculum development actually occurs, as opposed to theoretical stances as to the

way in which it is 'supposed to occur.' This
model postulates three stages to the development process.
These are platform, deliberation, and design.

From the Mentor Proposal was drawn "an idea of what
is and a vision of what ought to be" (Walker, 1971,
p. 52) which were considered to constitute the platform
of the development committee. Implicit within the
platform was a view of teachers, children, evaluation,
in-service, resources, and social studies. These,
along with explicit statements concerning the shape of
the intended program, surveys on teacher needs, the
recent research on in-service, and certain practical
restraints listed in the Proposal, were used to paint
a picture of the Mentor Program, as the developers
envisioned it.

The second stage in Walker's model is called
deliberation. He identifies four deliberative episodes
within this stage. These are issues, explications,
brainstorms, and reports. All of these were identified
in the Mentor tapes.

Four other episodes were identified as well.
These episodes took up a great deal of time during
meetings, but were concerned more with preparation for
deliberation, rather than deliberation itself. These
episodes were organization, presentation, update and
invention.

Another aspect of deliberation emerged from the

transcripts of the Mentor development committee. It
was noted that, in many cases, there was a social
aspect to the deliberations. In searching for a way to
make sense of this social aspect, Berger's idea of
"plausibility structures" was discovered. The
plausibility structures which seemed most appropriate
to these data were legitimations, appeals to significant
others, and nihilism. These were used in two ways by
the developers. Legitimations and appeals to significant
others were used to justify their decisions. Nihilism was
used as a means of 'letting off steam' and as a way of
drawing committee members together.

The third stage of Walker's model is called design.
The design was analyzed in two steps. The first step
involved a categorization of the major decisions
according to whether they were implicit or explicit
and a delineation of the circumstances or principles
which were used to justify each decision. Circumstances
were used far more than principles as a justification for
decisions.

The second step (not part of Walker's model)
involved an analysis of the design, using the same
categories as applied to the platform. It was found
that much of the "vision of what ought to be" had
vanished during the development process.

Werner (1977) has said, in reference to a
completed social studies program, that it is "a 'frozen

slide' in the film, as it were, of the program developers' streams of intentionality" (p. 125). The Mentor Program is such as this. This piece of research attempted to present not only the 'frozen slide' of the program, but some snapshots which depict the growth and change along the way.

Conclusions

As with any model, the naturalistic model has its strengths and limitations.

One limitation concerns the use of the category of deliberation. Walker concerns himself only with "the intellectual processes of inquiry, judgment, decision, and action that preceded, surrounded, and underly the design of a curriculum" (1975, p. 110). He categorizes this discourse according to four deliberative episodes - issue, brainstorm, report, and explication.

However, while these episodes may comprise the whole of deliberation, deliberation does not comprise the whole of the development process. Other kinds of episodes were found in the Mentor transcripts. These were called update, organization, presentation, and invention. These episodes comprise the "agenda-making and reviewing, making of announcements, reviewing progress to date, and the like" (1975, p. 109) which Walker chooses to ignore.

A third aspect of discourse is not included in Walker's naturalistic model and yet is present in the Mentor transcripts. This was a social aspect. It is a

question for further study as to whether or not the Mentor Project was unique in this regard. However, it did comprise a part of the discourse. The categories used to organize this data originated with Berger's (1969) concept of plausibility structures. These categories were nihilism, appeals to significant others, and legitimations.

By including only deliberative discourse for consideration in his model, Walker excludes much of the data which gives the "flavour" of the development process. For instance, the organizational episode in which the Mentor developers are handing out the sheets of a trial module, is indicative of one aspect of the development process. If only deliberative episodes had been included, the picture presented of the development process would have been incomplete. Deliberative discourse cannot proceed without the assistance of the discourse of the other episodes.

The four deliberative episodes, the additional episodes of organization, update, presentation, and invention, and the three plausibility structures could all be subsumed under a title such as "Dynamics."

Another limitation concerns one of Walker's deliberative episodes, the issue. Walker's definition of issue is: "opposing points of view are propounded and defended, and discussion is intense and animated" (Walker, 1971, p. 119). This definition was changed

somewhat when applied to the Mentor data. It became
simply the idea of trying to resolve a problem. This
did not necessarily involve hot dispute, but rather the
laying out of alternatives in trying to come to a
decision.

Walker's definition seems to depend on there being
strongly opposing points of view within the development
committee itself. This is not always the case, and was
not the case with Mentor. It was not usually the
developers who had opposing viewpoints, but the developers
and members of the ad hoc advisory committee. Therefore,
when the developers dealt with an issue, it was usually
a matter of anticipating or reviewing ad hoc committee
agreements and then preparing counter-arguments. While
feelings ran high at times, there was not much point in
engaging in hot dispute with people who were not present.

Another limitation concerns the design. The
design, as Walker defines it, is very difficult to
specify precisely. While the number of explicit decisions
is finite, the implicit decisions can never be completely
specified.

Walker notes this problem, but decides that it is
not serious since

> with accurate records any question that can be
> asked about the implicit design can be answered.
> In framing the question the questioner must
> ask how a particular issue was decided and this
> characterization of the issue defines the
> decision of interest. (1971, p. 55)

The problem here stems from the fact that it is difficult to identify those issues that do not result in explicit decisions. Walker defines the implicit design as being made up of "unconsidered choices" (1971, p. 54). It is difficult to identify the issue involved when courses of action are adopted automatically without consideration of alternatives. Furthermore, most projects do not keep the "accurate records" upon which Walker seems to be depending for specification of the implicit design.

A second limitation of the design as a set of decisions is the difficulty of using it as a basis for comparing the platform and the final products. For this reason a second level of analysis was added to this research. In this level of analysis the final product was analyzed in terms of the same categories which had originally been applied to the platform: Purpose, Format, Content, Setting, Role of Participants, and Evaluation.

This level of analysis allowed a comparison to be made between the final products and the developers' platform. The necessity of including this step was determined by the holistic nature of this research, as opposed to Walker's emphasis on analyzing several deliberative episodes in detail.

The strengths of this model are many. First and

foremost, it shows program development as it really is, with all its flaws; not as pundits may have decided it should be.

When compared to the classical model as outlined by Tyler, certain specific advantages become evident.

In the classical model, objectives are essential, since without them, learning experiences cannot be rationally selected or assessed. The problem here is that developers do not always explicitly state their objectives, and if they do state them, it is not necessarily the first task they undertake. Walker's concept of platform, the system(s) of beliefs and values held by developers, accounts for this. If no set of objectives is formally stated, then the researcher can turn to articles written by developers, correspondence, a project Proposal which outlines intents, or any other documents which might illuminate the pertinent beliefs and values held by the developers.

If objectives are explicitly set out, the research (Wooten, 1965; Eisner, 1967; Shipman, 1974; Shaw, 1975) indicates that they are not the starting point, but rather, they rise out of deliberation.

As Reid points out:

> Deliberation can be a process of discovery -
> can take an existing situation and move it to
> a new plane of understanding and insight
> before an attempt is made to state what
> problems we ought to be trying to solve.
> (1978, pp. 63-64)

Therefore, it is inappropriate to place objectives at the beginning of the cycle.

The naturalistic model, then, begins further back in the development process than does the classical model. The stating of objectives is preceded by deliberation and the deliberation stems from the platform or system(s) of beliefs and values held by the developers. The stating of objectives is, in a sense, a late development of the platform.

Analysis of deliberation makes evident the actual processes of decision-making that occurred during development. By exposing these in this way, other people are enabled to analyze them and determine which data determined which decisions. This information can then be used to improve the decision-making processes of future development projects. Developers can at least be aware of possible pitfalls and take measures to avoid them.

By representing the final products as a series of decisions, the products are related directly back to the decisions that produced them, and to the deliberation that preceded the decisions themselves.

Another strength of the naturalistic model is its flexibility. Walker's purpose was to analyze the deliberative episodes in great depth, using his three-tiered System for Analyzing Curriculum Deliberation (SACD).

One intent of this study was to trace the Mentor issues over the entire course of the development of the project. The analysis used in this research involved only the bottom tier of the SACD, that of determining deliberative episodes.

While Walker's intent was not to show changes over time, his naturalistic model was able to be adapted to that purpose. (A fruitful research project might be to take the Mentor transcripts and analyze portions of the discourse using Walker's SACD.)

The key strength of this model is that it is descriptive, rather than prescriptive. The classical model makes decision-making in program development appear to be a straight-forward, logical, analytical process. It is not. It is messy and confused. Many factors and influences come into play along the way. There are no guarantees that the final products will end up looking anything like what was originally intended. This model accounts for all of this.

This study began with some general research questions. The naturalistic model was used as a means of portraying the Mentor Project data in a way that would provide some answers to these questions. The questions and their "answers" are as follows:

1. Upon what basis did the development committee begin its work?

Like the Kettering Project (Walker, 1975) and the
Keele Project (Shipman, 1974), the development process
did not begin with a clearly stated set of objectives.
The Mentor development committee produced a proposal, which
was taken to the ad hoc advisory committee for approval.
The Proposal was in two sections, the first being
devoted to a summary of pertinent research on in-service,
a listing of practical constraints on the incorporation
of all of the research findings into the plan for
Mentor, a summary of two surveys of teachers' needs
with regard to in-service, and a description of the
implications of all of the above for the Mentor Project.
The second section of the Proposal described the proposed
format and content of the Mentor Project.

As with the Kettering Project, there was no argument
about the platform because of the way in which persons
were selected for the team.

> Those who were not enthusiastic about the
> approach described to them might pursue the
> matter no further, nor, if they did, were they
> likely to find a warm reception from the
> director or the rest of the staff. Eisner's
> talks and writings no doubt persuaded many
> who had not already formed strong opinions on
> the matters he spoke and wrote about. And in
> some minor matters individuals swallowed their
> reservations in order to get on with the work.
> (1975, p. 100)

The members of the Mentor development team were
like-minded individuals, all in elementary social studies,
all with many of the same views on teaching and learning.
Consequently, the platform, as stated, was not discussed.

It was simply accepted. The only concerns ever expressed were editorial ones, such as use of punctuation and what portion of the American survey to include.

Curriculum theorists (Schwab, 1973; Reid, 1975) recommend that development committees be composed of members representing a variety of areas of expertise and experience. However, it seems that it is common practice to include like-minded individuals as development committee members, rather than incorporating a variety of skills, experiences, and even values (Shipman, 1974; Walker, 1975).

> The development was done by a small, homogeneous group of subject specialists with past teaching experience, but not by practising teachers, and with no significant involvement of students, school administrators, or laymen. (Walker, 1975, p. 99)

The reasons for this are no doubt based in practicalities. If the people who are asked to take on a project are based in a university, it is much easier to work with others in the same setting than it is to coordinate schedules with people outside the setting. Also, in the case of both Mentor and the Kettering Project, professors used the project as an opportunity for graduate students to apply some of the theory to which they had been exposed.

However, it is interesting to note that, in both cases, the theory regarding the composition of program development committees was ignored. In the case of Mentor, one tenet of the theory on in-service was also

ignored. According to the literature, practising teachers
should be involved in planning their own in-service
programs.

While the Proposal document went through three
drafts before being accepted by the ad hoc advisory
committee, the first section was never changed. All the
stakeholders - the development committee, ACCESS, and the
ad hoc advisory committee - were willing to accept the
rhetoric without argument. It was the translation into
a practical plan of action that the ad hoc committee thought
worthwhile to question.

> Tom - We seem to have talked a good game in our
> rationale. But when it comes down to carrying it
> through in the development of the thing . . .

> Mary - We abandoned that a long time ago.

> Ted - That was abandoned from about the second
> week.

> Tom - Okay.

> Mary - When you go back and listen to the tapes,
> that was abandoned. It's interesting that, I
> think the advisory committee, in a sense,
> accepted the rationale, in that they've never
> really changed it. But then they've directed all
> of their attention to the second part of the
> thing, which is how are you going to do this.
> And in dealing with - "how are you going to do
> this - this is where the practicalities, the
> realities, the perceptions of what you can do,
> have shaped how we're coming to this.

> Ted - So the rationale's sort of become just
> empty rhetoric.

> Mary - It's something that everybody can agree on,
> and like, you can send out, you know, anybody
> who is on that committee would agree with the
> rationale.

Tom - Okay.

Mary - So it legitimizes the . . .

(April 11, 1980)

There was little or no discussion even on the part of the developers as to what was to go into the first part of the Proposal. One of the developers simply took it home one night and wrote it. After that it was not questioned. The developers devoted their attention to the second part.

The creation of products began even before the final version of the second part of the proposal was accepted.
2.   What were the components of the curriculum building process?

Walker found four episodes in deliberation. These were issues, where two or more sides of a problem are advocated; reports, when others in the group are briefed on situations about which one member has privileged information; brainstorms, when ideas are generated in a brisk fashion; and explications, when one member explains some point to the others.

All of the above were found in the Mentor deliberations. However, by no means most of the meeting time was spent in deliberation. Much of it was devoted to other pursuits.

Those that were identified in the Mentor transcripts were organization, when time was devoted to tasks intended to keep things running smoothly; presentation, when one or more members would offer something which they had written for consideration by other members; update, which

involved a reminder by one member of what had been accomplished to date, and possibly, a listing of what had yet to be done; and invention, which involved the actual production of materials during meeting time.

In addition to the above, a social aspect to deliberation was discovered. Three plausibility structures were used to categorize this aspect of deliberation. Legitimations were used by the developers to justify or "legitimize" certain decisions, usually ones with which they were displeased. Nihilism, whereby "alternative reality interpretations are given a negative status" (Werner, 1977, p. 115) was used as a means of 'letting off steam.' Appeals to significant others were again used to justify decisions. The developers' significant others seem to have been research in the areas of learning theory and in-service education for teachers.

3.   How were decisions made during the development process?

As Walker points out, one might have "the impression that the rest of the curriculum making task could be little more than a logical deduction from platform beliefs" (1975, p. 107).

He gives two reasons why this is not the case. First, the platform is incomplete.

> One cannot anticipate all the working principles
> he will need. As the work progresses the need
> for principles of some unexpected kind will
> become acute and they will be devised and
> incorporated into the platform. (1975, p. 107)

Second, platform statements are not specific enough to apply directly to problems that arise. A situation could fall under several such principles. In the light of one principle, it might be a desirable situation, while in the light of another, not so desirable. Therefore, deliberation is required in order to reach a decision as to what is best in each situation by establishing a hierarchy or principles.

> A project with a sound, comprehensive, but
> as yet unused platform is in somewhat the same
> position as our legal system when a new law has
> been passed. The formulation and passage of
> the law is only the beginning of an often extensive
> set of procedents that must be established as
> that law is applied to particular cases.
> (1975, p. 108)

Walker says of the Kettering Project, "the answer to how platform became operating policy is simply this: they argued about it" (1975, p. 109).

A number of issues arose during the deliberation phase of the Mentor Project. The major ones were these:

> - Was the in-service program to rely on a leader
> or was it to be capable of being used independently
> by participants?

> - Where were the classroom demonstrations to take
> place and who was to teach them?

> - Should an in-service with the intent of teaching
> about inquiry, use inquiry?

> - Where did the role of the developers end and
> that of ACCESS begin?

> - Was the material for the videotaped classroom
> examples to be obtained from Kanata Kits and
> Teaching Units (material developed by Alberta
> Education) or could it be obtained elsewhere?

- Were teachers to choose between two modules dealing with the same inquiry skill, according to their preferred teaching styles (teacher-directed or teacher-student shared decision-making) or were aspects of each teaching style to be in one module?

According to Walker, "to be constrained by circumstances is the curriculum designer's strongest possible justification, for then he has no genuine choice" (1971, p. 55) when making a decision.

In coming to a decision on each one of these issues the developers appealed to circumstances in the form of the ad hoc advisory committee. If the advisory committee reached a particular decision on an issue, then the developers had no choice. They had to follow the direction of the committee.

It would seem that the developers never really took "ownership" of their products. As one developer said later, "We never put down something that we believed in and then stood up for it. We never said, 'We will not do this.'" (April, 1981).

There were several reasons for this unwillingness to take "ownership" of the products.

The first is connected with the fact that the developers accepted a directive role for the advisory committee. In short order, the advisory committee was no longer acting in an "advisory" capacity. The relationship between this committee and the developers was very much a superordinate-subordinate one.

> We just snapped to it. When they said, "We
> want examples from the Teaching Units and
> Kanata Kits," we said, "Yes, sir, how many do
> you want?"   (April 10, 1981)

It was also a defense against the criticism of this committee. It became very discouraging to have things go to them and come back to be revised again and again.

In retrospect, one of the developers commented, "I can remember saying, 'There's no point in polishing it and putting it into finished form because they'll just suggest all kinds of corrections anyway'" (April 10, 1981). On one or more occasions two of the developers sent products in this unfinished state to the advisory committee, only to have them come back approved as they were!)

Time was also a factor here. Three of the members of the development committee were graduate students with full-time course loads and assistantships. The fourth grad student was working as a counsellor in a school system half-time, as well as taking courses and carrying an assistantship. The other two members of the team were professors with full teaching loads. The Mentor Project was over and above all of the other commitments, which both ethically and practically had to take first priority. Taking "ownership" of the products could have involved a great deal of time, defending them at advisory committee meetings, etc.

A reference was made to this during discussion of the issue of whether the classroom demonstrations should follow one class through a unit from start to finish or whether a different classroom should be used for each episode.

> Tom - I think what we've got to do is get all five of us to go and talk with the committee. Get an equal number of people working from that point of view. Because we sure got talked down on that one last time.
>
> Brad - We did.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

In fact, one of the grad students did attend two or three of the advisory committee meetings, but he was the exception. (Whether or not members of the advisory committee would have wanted all of the developers attending their meetings is another question.)

The developers were able to cope with the restrictions which were imposed upon them (or which they allowed to be imposed upon them) by the ad hoc committee through a number of devices.

Humour was one such device. Looking through the transcripts of the development committee tapes, one can see that humour was a common thread throughout the meetings. Much of the humour, too, occurred outside the meetings, such as this example.

"It's like World War I really. We're in the trenches and just poke our heads above the trench and smile

and get a bayonet in the throat" (Mar. 12, 1981).

In another example the Mentor Project was likened to a tennis game. The grad students were depicted as ball boys. The professors were "off for coaching" but couldn't find the coach. The members of the advisory committee were depicted as serving balls at our throats and an individual on the advisory committee was crying "Foul," at every turn (Mar. 23, 1981).

As is the case in these two examples, much of the humour was directed against the advisory committee.

Another means of coping with this situation was through the use of nihilism, a means by which "alternative reality interpretations are given a negative status" (Werner, 1977, p. 115).

In many cases there was a degree of nihilism in the humour that was used, as in the above two examples.

In addition, nihilism was applied directly to the advisory committee, ACCESS, Alberta Education, the new social studies curriculum, and to the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units.

Not only was time a problem for the developers as individuals, in trying to cope with often frenetic schedules, but time seemed to be a problem for the project as a whole. There was very little time for reflection about what we were doing. No sooner was the Proposal written, than we were "hammering out" modules.

External events had a direct bearing on the need for haste in the project. The 1978 interim curriculum, which had originally been intended to be in place until 1982, was suddenly revised and appeared in final form in September of 1981. To assist in its implementation, $2.2 million was spent on hiring resource teachers to conduct in-service sessions. Mentor was now intended to be used as training material for this group of people, and secondly, as material for them to use in their in-service sessions with other teachers.

The never-ending revisions seem to be a common occurence in curriculum projects. Wooten, in his description of the School Mathematics Study Group, says that the "continuous writing and rewriting, discussion and criticism, suggesting and commenting was the very essence of SMSG production" (1965, p. 77).

It was certainly the essence of Mentor.

Of course, one difference between Mentor and this particular project, and others as well, is that in this project the writers came together in the summertime and spent their time working on the project exclusively. They were not hindered and harrassed by other commitments, so perhaps the continual revisions were not quite the burden that they were to the Mentor developers.

One unalterable fact about a Mentor development committee meeting was that one member would have to leave early to attend to another commitment, or that another would arrive late for the same reason.

Also, in the case of the SMSG project, the criticism came primarily from other developers. So, while someone might be judging your work today, you could be judging their's tomorrow. In the Mentor situation, it was a group of "outsiders" who did the criticizing. There was never any reciprocal exchange of products. This is perhaps why the developers became rather defensive about their work.

Shipman said:

> This was not a clear-cut, one-off operation, but an untidy affair, involving bargaining as much as abstract definition; a victim of more than one uneasy modification. (1974, p. 145)

Mentor was certainly a result of many an "uneasy modification," on the part of all of its stakeholders.

4. Are the products created by the development committee congruent with the basis from which they began their work?

The major difference between the intents expressed in the Proposal for the in-service program and what was actually developed lies in the extent to which teachers have a role in shaping their in-service experience.

In Draft #1 of the Proposal, teachers were to make a choice as to which one of four teaching patterns they wished to explore, on the basis of a self-awareness inventory and their own knowledge about themselves as teachers. In the third draft of the Proposal, the

four teaching patterns: teacher presenter, learning
centres, learning contracts, and group investigation, had
been changed to modules based on the inquiry process in
the curriculum guide, with the addition of three modules
on evaluation and one on valuing. In each case, there
were two modules from which to choose, one for a teacher
who preferred a teacher-director type of teaching mode
and one for teachers who preferred to share decision-
making with students.

Teachers, then, could choose, not only a module on
the stage of the inquiry model they were most interested
in learning about, but one in their preferred teaching
mode.

However, over the course of development, the two
modes were collapsed into one module, thus removing even
that element of choice.

> Tom - . . . the rationale came down pretty
> strong on the need to try to involve teachers
> in the planning of their own experience, and
> accepting some responsibility for thinking
> about themselves and how they work in their
> classroom and, then out of that reflection,
> making some conscious decisions about what
> they want to, to experience, to learn about.
> And it just seems like we're sort of backing
> away from that somehow. The choices left open
> to teachers, really now, we've only one - which
> of these modules might I pick up and go through?
> So their decision-making role in shaping their
> own experience is really not, there's not much
> left.
>
> (April 11, 1980)

The self-awareness inventory now bore little
relation to the only choice that teachers had to make.

In the same way as the element of choice gradually diminished as time went on, so did teachers' input into the in-service experience itself.

In looking at Draft #2 of the Openers module, teachers were asked to generate a list of characteristics of an effective Opener, based on an experience with an Opener, earlier in the module. By Draft #3, they are given a list of characteristics and asked to check the ones which they consider to be most important.

Implications

I.   Implications for Practice

Shipman and others have lamented the lack of "experience of the job ... . to be done to serve as a guide to new curriculum development teams to use" (Shipman, 1974, p. 64).

As more developers or observers of development teams record their experiences, hopefully new teams will be able to avoid some of the pitfalls encountered by previous projects.

A number of points, which may be of use to others, emerge from the data gathered over the course of the Mentor Project.

The Outset of the Project

1.   One contract which covers the entire project is preferable to separate contracts for parts of the project. By agreeing to a contract at the outset of a project, developers are clear as to what the expectations are for their role. If expectations differ, then this is the time either to come to a compromise or to reach a decision that the parties will not be able to work together. It is much easier to abandon a project at this point, than later, when part of the project has been completed. It is difficult to negotiate when one has already undertaken certain development commitments,

and has both an interest and a stake in the success
of the project. In the case of Mentor, two separate
contracts were signed; one near the beginning of the
project, and theother in June of 1980. When it came
time to sign the second contract, the developers found
that their role encompassed more than they had
anticipated.

Another advantage of one contract is that it ensures
the financial arrangements are set down in writing at the
outset of the project. People's memories fade and even
their understanding of arrangements at the time when they
are made, can vary remarkably. If financial arrangements
are taken care of at the outset, then they will not crop
up later and cause negative feelings on the part of all
parties involved. In the case of Mentor, the first
contract covered a small piece of the total task and was
for a very small sum of money. The developers and the
other parties involved had widely different figures in
mind, as to what had been originally agreed upon as the
final total which they were to receive for their efforts.
When it came time to sign the second contract, there
were serious problems.

2.   The context of a development committee and an ad hoc
advisory committee seems a difficult one in which to work.
If this, by necessity, is the situation, then the roles
of each committee, and any individuals connected to, but
not part of, the committee, should be made clear initially.

Developers then can make a decision as to whether or not
they are prepared to work within the prescribed parameters.

3.   Developers need to ensure at the outset of a project
that the timelines are realistic. It is important that
timelines allow for extensive piloting and the possibility
of extensive changes as a result. It is also important
that developers have time to reflect on what they have
done and where they are going. It might even be wise to
consider secondment of the developers for a period of time,
so that concentration on the project could be total.

4.   Organizational matters, while seemingly of minor
importance, do impinge upon the effectiveness of a project.
Every project should have a permanent place to call its
own. Preferably the "place" should be a locked room with
plenty of storage space.

The Mentor Project did not have its own place for
the first five months, and as a result, material was lost
in transit and a great deal of time was spent prior to,
and at the beginning of each meeting, in sorting through
piles of papers picked up off desks and brought to the
meeting place.

5.   Educational program development is not for the weak
in spirit. Developers need to be mentally prepared, at
the outset of a project, for a stressful period in their
lives.

> One cannot stress too strongly the emotional
> impact of the job, especially in the early stages.
> All of us experienced it as a 'shock to the system'.
> (Shipman, 1974, p. 136)

A developer needs to be determined, yet possess an ability to compromise. A developer needs to be intelligent, knowledgeable, and committed. A developer must have endless patience, a ready sense of humour, and a hard outer shell to withstand the 'slings and arrows' of pilot teachers and advisory committees.

6.   Plan for inclusion of practising teachers on the development committee. The curriculum literature clearly points to the importance of practising teachers being members of development committees.

Shipman makes a distinction between

(a)   Teachers fully cooperating in the
        development from the start, including
        the defining of aims.

(b)   Teachers only helping a project to try
        out its materials and its suggested
        methods.

<div align="right">(1974, p. 144)</div>

The Mentor Project chose the second option (as did Shipman's Keele Project). Perhaps greater input from practising teachers during the development process would have made the program more acceptable to teachers when it came time to pilot.

<div align="center">During the Project</div>

7.   Be aware that many decisions take a great deal of time to reach. Be concerned about lengthy discourse only when it is trivial or repetitive.

8.   Take the time to record the deliberations for future committees. Walker said, when beginning his research, that he "thought there must be a body of lore somewhere

that would enable curriculum makers to profit from the insights and mistakes of their predecessors" (1975, p. 92).

He soon discovered that this was not the case. Instead, he found what Schwab has referred to as a "virtual absence of record" (1975, p. viii) of the deliberations of development committees.

As more and more studies attempt to do this, there will be a picture built up of what educational program development is really like. It is only then that we can begin to build upon what has gone before.

9. Consider taping one or two meetings and then transcribing the tapes in order to study the language used. Ask how communication could be improved. Are some members of the committee dominating others? Is everyone given time to express opinions? Are people delineating their positions clearly, or are they making unwarranted assumptions that their meaning is understood?

10. Be aware that developers must tread a fine line between standing up for their own products and ideas and being open to the views of other stakeholders. This is not an easy task.

Shipman (1974) has probably done one of the most extensive studies available, portraying curriculum development and the roles of various stakeholders. He comes to the conclusion that program development is a process of "bargaining, negotiation and horsetrading" (1974, p. 43) between the parties involved. Perhaps this is the way it should be, with the final program a beneficiary of varied perspectives.

From a developer's point of view, this is not what happened with the Mentor Project. The mode became one of developers carrying their products to advisory committee meetings, where they were told how they were to be revised.

However, if developers wish to have a degree of autonomy, then they must exercise it. In an interview, a member of the ad hoc advisory committee stated that the developers had "allowed themselves" to become tied down to the use of the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units in the Mentor modules (April 6, 1981).

Until that point, we as developers, had considered ourselves as victims. But perhaps, victims are such because they 'allow themselves' to be victimized.

In a conversation long after the development of Mentor, two of the developers likened the development committee to a woman who is beaten by her husband. Instead of taking a stand, she complains to the neighbours of her harsh treatment, and then goes back for more (July 30, 1982). The analogy is apt, except that the developers complained to one another.

Connected to this is the aspect of "selling" things to other parties involved; in this case, the development team being the merchant and the ad hoc committee the shopper.

        Ted - But I suspect the committee will go
        for Number Three.

Susan - Then maybe we should present a strong
argument for the other two.

Ted - I think we did. I think Tom did.

Susan - I do too.

Betty - You could sell that.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

Shipman (1972) refers to program development as
a "busy marketplace" (p. 152). Perhaps the buying and
selling should be reciprocal, rather than one party
always doing the buying or rejecting and the other the
selling.

Following the Project

Take time to evaluate the decision-making processes
and to discuss ways in which practice could have been
improved. What would we do differently another time?
What implications can be drawn from our experience that
might be of benefit to other developers?

II Implications for Further Research

Before we can judge the worth of contemporary
practices, we must develop a thorough understanding of
them.

Considerable reference has been made in this study
to the dearth of research on the processes of program
development. It should be noted that part of the
reason for this is that not every curriculum development
committee is amenable to having its deliberations recorded
and made public. The members of the Mentor committee
were somewhat unique in this regard.

This may have stemmed partly from the setting of the project and the backgrounds of the committee members. Research is, of course, a major reason for the existence of universities. If individuals at universities are going to use others as objects of research, then it seems only fair and reasonable that they, themselves, should be open to the same scrutiny. This is perhaps why the projects reported in the literature tend, with few exceptions, to be at universities, rather than at the school district level.

It is understandable that members of a development committee would be concerned about having their deliberations recorded for posterity. Remarks, presented out of context, sometimes do not convey the meaning intended. Sometimes statements are made, in the heat of the moment, tape recorder or not, that are regretted later. Also, almost anyone, no matter how well educated, appears somewhat incoherent when their words are put on paper exactly as they were uttered. The tendency to interrupt one another and to leave sentences unfinished, the long pauses, the "um's," and the "uh's," do not make individuals appear particularly articulate. Pseudonyms are a thin disguise at best, for those outsiders who know the committee members.

None of the developers expressed a concern about having language tidied up. These people were willing to let their words stand. By doing so, they allowed the

researcher to capture the true flavour of oral conversation. It is unlikely that all development committee members would be as willing to let this happen.

With that proviso, there are a number of areas in which the naturalistic model could contribute to further research. Walker (1971, pp. 60-63) has identified five of these areas, each of which has been delineated below. Some of the questions listed are the same as, or have been based on, those Walker has suggested. Others fit into his categories, but suggest slightly different directions for study.

1.   The model itself contains propositions that need to be tried.

Do developers, in fact, share a greater body of common beliefs than one would expect of groups of similar composition? Do members of a development committee, in fact, appeal to a platform, or common body of beliefs, when making decisions? Do development committees with similar platforms conduct similar deliberations and produce similar designs?

2.   The model provides a conceptual basis for descriptive studies of curriculum development.

What kinds of statements comprise a typical platform? Are they statements of aim? Are they theoretical statements? What kinds of issues are common to deliberation? What proportion of deliberation time is commonly spent dealing with issues, and what proportion is devoted to organization, updates, presentations,

explications, brainstorming, reports, and production?
How many alternatives does a development group typically
examine before coming to a decision? Does new information
change decisions already made? What are the data sources
commonly used in decision-making? Does decision-making
commonly rest in the hands of one or two more
powerful developers?

3.   The model provides a conceptual basis for studies of
the effectiveness of various design elements.

An important area which has received little research,
is the problem of determining whether or not different
design elements produce different results. In the case
of an in-service program, examples of appropriate questions
might be: Does group interaction result in a more
effective program? What effect does building in a choice
element for participants have on the perceived success
of the program? Does group interaction in an in-service
program result in the development of longterm support
groups? How effective are support groups in facilitating
change in the classroom?

4.   The model could facilitate curriculum research by
making it possible to formulate succinctly questions that
have not received enough attention from curriculum
specialists.

Walker points out that a model has an effect in

shaping the kinds of questions that are asked. For
instance, the classical model, by its nature, has
suggested studies into how to formulate objectives most
effectively. The naturalistic model encourages studies
in other areas.

Which grounds for justification are the most
appropriate? (This involves studying the logical and
empirical foundations of the process of justifying decisions.)
Decisions are justified by many different means.
Developers can go back to platform principles. They can
incite an outside constraint as determining their decision.
They can cite information which they have gathered,
pertinent to the data at hand.

What is the most effective order in which to make
decisions? By making decisions with widespread
significance early in the development process, the scope
of further decisions can be so reduced that many options
are cut off before they can be considered. We need to
study the consequences of looking at various kinds of '
questions at different points in deliberation.

5.   The model should help to identify problems from other
fields whose solution would facilitate curriculum development.

The field of psychology is directly related to the
study of program development. What is the optimum size
for a group which has the task of designing an educational
program? Is a democratic model the most effective in
terms of decision-making? What skills should members of

the committee possess? What should their backgrounds be?
How do members of a development committee influence one
another? What are the paths of influence in a particular
development committee?

The purpose of this study was "to map an unfamiliar
terrain" (Doyle & Ponder, 1976, p. 4). We have very
little knowledge about the processes involved in the
development of educational programs. As we become more
familiar with the ways in which educational programs
are actually developed, we will be able to make informed
decisions about how they should be developed.

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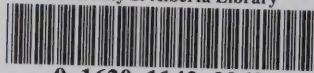Shipman, M.D. Contrasting views of a curriculum project. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 1972, 4, 145-153.

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